



**Roskilde
University**

Channelling solidarity

inputs from third sector, social innovation and co-creation of public goods: Deliverable Report 2

Eschweiler, Jennifer; Hulgård, Lars; Lykke Noor Ørgaard, Christina

Publication date:
2018

Citation for published version (APA):

Eschweiler, J. (Ed.), Hulgård, L. (Ed.), & Lykke Noor Ørgaard, C. (2018). *Channelling solidarity: inputs from third sector, social innovation and co-creation of public goods: Deliverable Report 2*. SOLIDUS.

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain.
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal.

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact rucforsk@kb.dk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



Channelling solidarity: inputs from third sector, social innovation and co-creation of public goods

Deliverable 5.2



Deliverable:	D5.1
Title:	Channelling solidarity: inputs from third sector, social innovation and co-creation of public goods
Editors:	Jennifer Eschweiler, Lars Hulgård (RU)
Contributors:	Christina Lykke Noor Ørgaard (RU), Laura Gómez Urquijo, María Antonia Caro, Braulio Gómez Fortes, Janire Fonseca, Roberto Nuño-Solín, (DEUSTO), Holger Lengfeld, Florian Kley, Lennart Selling (LEIP), Elisabetta Mocha, Katharine Aulton (UEDIN), Vanessa Nicolau de Assunção Albano (ENSP), Mária Murray Svidroňová (UMB), Linda McDowall (OXFORD), Julia Szalai, Sara Svensson, Daniel Vince (CEU), Simone van Ham, Jet Klokgieters, Marit Hopman & Trudie Knijn (UU), Fani Dima, Nikos Kourachanis, Dimitris Venieris (UPE), Maria Angeli, Miranda Christou (UC), Manolis Kalaitzake, Kathleen Lynch (UCD), Ida Tolgensbakk (HIOA-NOVA), Marta Soler, Patricia Melgar (CREA-UB)
Type	Report
Version:	v1
Date:	14 March 2018
Dissemination	Public
Download	http://solidush2020.eu/outcomes/
Copyright:	Copyright © 2015, SOLIDUS consortium – All rights reserved

SOLIDUS

Acronym:	SOLIDUS
Title:	Solidarity in European societies: empowerment, social justice and citizenship
Duration:	36 months
	From 2015-06-01 to 2018-06-01 (ongoing project)
Total cost:	EUR 2,495,608.00
Call:	H2020-EURO-SOCIETY-2014
Topic:	EURO-3-2014 - European societies after the crisis

SOLIDUS partners

CREA-UB:	Community of Researchers on Excellence for All – University of Barcelona (Spain) (Coordinator)
DEUSTO:	University of Deusto (Spain)
CEU:	Central European University (Hungary)
HIOA-NOVA:	Oslo and Akershus University College of Applied Sciences (Norway)
ENSP:	National School of Public Health (Portugal)
UCD:	University College Dublin (Ireland)
RU:	Roskilde University (Denmark)
UC:	University of Cyprus (Cyprus)
UEDIN:	University of Edinburgh (United Kingdom)
UMB:	University Matej Bel (Slovakia)
LEIP:	University of Leipzig (Germany)
OXFORD:	University of Oxford (United Kingdom)
UPE:	University of Peloponnese (Greece)
UU:	University of Utrecht (Netherlands)



The SOLIDUS project (June 2016-May 2018) has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No. 649489

Executive Summary

This report integrates the main findings of WP5 “Channelling solidarity: inputs from third sector, social innovation and co-creation of public goods”, looking at third sector and social economy organisations as a transit zone for solidarity actions. Furthermore, it examines social innovations and initiatives to impact social policy by means of collaboration with public institutions with special focus on the distribution of roles and tasks between public, private and third sectors that indicates social solidarity across national and local contexts, employing a solidarity economy lens that has personal autonomy, social justice and democratisation as core drivers. The report includes 1) a short conceptual overview and methodology, 2) trends of collaboration between public administration and third sector/ social economy organisations in SOLIDUS countries before and after economic and fiscal crises as well as post-crisis policies of austerity that have increased socio-economic inequality, 3) a cross-country analysis looking at the social, economic and democratic dimensions of collaboration and 4) the key drivers and barriers for collaboration towards social solidarity in different contexts. It concludes with reflections on changing patterns of collaboration and the need to incorporate personal autonomy and solidarity economy considerations in political and public logics.

Contents

Executive Summary	3
Introduction: Locating research in the literature and objectives	5
2 Methodology	8
2.1 Problem orientation	8
2.2 Methods	11
3. Channelling solidarity through collaboration	15
3.1 Institutional contexts of TS/SE - public administration collaboration	15
3.2. Three dimensions of solidarity action in SOLIDUS evidence: social, democratic and economic.	37
4. Drivers and barriers in TS/SE collaboration with the public sector	46
5 Conclusions: changing patterns of collaboration?.....	59
5.1 General observations: distribution of roles.....	59
5.2 Supporting autonomy	63
Bibliography.....	68
Annex 1: Focus Group Guide	73
Annex 2: Case study protocol	76
Annex 3: Report Online survey	79
1 Results Online Survey WP5 focus countries.....	79
2 Results Online Survey:Additional tables and figures.....	90

1 Introduction: Locating research in the literature and objectives

Europe is going through multi-dimensional crises: austerity measures are transforming public administrations and social policies across Europe; welfare policies have been shifting from institutional and redistributive orientations towards enabling policies and market-driven competition. Disputes around the reception and integration of refugees increases polarisation within societies and the European Union, fuelled by rising socio-economic inequalities. As a result, social responsibility increasingly shifts from being a public concern to an individual and private concern (Hulgård 2010, Hulgård & Andersen, 2012). At the same time civil society based organisations and initiatives have always addressed gaps left by state policies. Collaboration between sectors is part of European social history, often defined and implemented at the local level due to principles of subsidiarity. Here we seek to make a systematic contribution showing different kinds of collaborations that foster social solidarity through collaboration in different institutional contexts and fields, uncovering some drivers and barriers that transcend political, cultural and socio-economic context. We refer to collaboration rather than co-production, as the academic debate refers to co-production as public administration working directly with citizens (i.e. Brandsen & Honingh, 2015), while we focus on the level of formal organisations.

Other SOLIDUS work packages have produced evidence of spontaneous acts of solidarity by people to alleviate the imminent effects of crisis. Some actions of citizens have transformed into organisations funded by the public sector in the scope of just a few years. However, organisations like non-profits, NGOs and social enterprises have traditionally played a key role in addressing social needs. Their actions are not confined to helping people in need or providing services. They are also important advocacy voices, speaking on behalf of groups of people or related to issues challenging the common good, demanding their expertise to be reflected in social policy.

The main aim of WP5 was to exemplify the role of third sector organisations as channels of successful solidarity actions into the social policy domain by way of collaboration with the public sector, and to assess the distribution of roles. Are organisations initiators, co-designers or co-producers of services and social policy discourses? Many European research and mapping studies carried out in this field found that this depends to a large extent on the institutional design of welfare, political will and opportunities, topic and target group, and that it varies between administrative levels (i.e. TSI, WILCO, ITSSOIN). SOLIDUS research shows that in some instances austerity or refugee crises had an impact on the way public administrations collaborate with social organisations, in other cases working relationships have not changed or have been subject of a broader reform agenda which must be analysed using different analytical frameworks from the one employed in SOLIDUS.

This work package offers an insight in the views of actors working in organisations whose

orientation is foremost social, and of those working in public institutions in charge of delivering social policies. It zooms in on the distribution of roles between public, private and third sector and the different stimuli and modes of collaboration: as the result of legislation, advocacy, austerity, or personal relationships. Creating a partnership on eye-to-eye level has always been a challenge due to a number of issues: the legitimacy of civil society based organisations, both formally and in public discourses of a country; the dependency on public funding, muting the voice of advocacy; the issue of trust in new, bottom-up initiatives. By pointing out some of the structural, cultural and socio-political drivers and barriers in the co-delivery of activities that seek to promote social justice and inclusion, embedded in a solidarity economy framework, we underline some innovative forms of public sector/ third sector collaboration in the fields of housing, employment, health and education and formulate a number of recommendations.

The first challenge is to draw the boundaries of the third sector. Definitions and use of the phrase third sector vary internationally, depending on cultural, political and intellectual traditions. However, the main distinction is between a continental European understanding, using the notion of ‘social economy’, in contrast to an Anglo-American using the notion of ‘the third sector’ (Defourny, Hulgård & Pestoff, 2015). This distinction also relates to social innovation in the sense that Moulaert et al. (2017) have discovered a dualism in social innovation research between an Anglo-American tradition on the one side, often based upon a business school and management tradition, and a Canadian-European on the other, departing from the tradition of social economy in Europe. The latter is ‘more diverse, rooted in the emancipatory ideals of Continental social and solidarity movements, and strongly developed through the new approaches to community and neighbourhood development that emerged in the late 1970s – early 1980s’ (Moulaert et al, 2017: 24).

However, also Europe has been marked by different historic trajectories, although some trends of convergence may be happening. When taking a closer look at the differences in Europe it appears that in some countries, particularly Ireland and the UK, the third sector is traditionally equated with organisations that have charitable status and purposes; in Northern Europe, it typically refers to private institutions that are doing work on a non-profit basis; in the Netherlands it also refers to non-profit associations providing services, but also to advocacy groups, and social enterprises. Especially in France, Belgium and Southern Europe, the term *social economy* is deployed to refer to groups such as associations, cooperatives and mutual societies. Despite their differences, all of these manifestations of the third sector share certain common attributes: they are all institutionally separate from government, they share a high degree of self-governance, they have a social mission that is pursued on a voluntary basis, and profit-distribution is forbidden or significantly constrained.

Conceptually, it may be relevant to outline some distinctions between civil society on the one hand and third sector and social economy on the other. Whereas the former are emphasizing the civic and social dimension of the civil sphere, the latter is conceptually more

difficult to pin with accuracy, since social economy can be identified by organizational types, whereas civil society is rooted in European political philosophy. This is epistemologically relevant, as it zooms in on third sector actors as acting differently from economic or state actors, since their actions are value-driven as opposed to maximising profit-driven (Enjolras, 2015). However, also scholars working in the tradition of social and solidarity economy emphasise characteristics that relate to the broader emancipatory aspects than ‘just’ the social or the economic (Hulgård, 2004; Laville, 2010; Hulgård, 2011). Even hybrid organisations pursuing both non-market activities and market activities promote internal democratic practices (Defourny & Nyssens, 2016) and strategically interact with their institutional environment (Nyssens & Petrella, 2015). In this report we refer to third sector/ social economy organisations (TS/SE organisations) in general terms. We specify the different organisational forms of organisations included in this WP in a typology in the methodology section (see chapter 2) and throughout the analysis.

Promoting solidarity through inputs from the third sector/ social economy has a number of merits, as many social services delivered by such entities are co-designed by citizens or at least developed close to citizens, thereby ensuring decisions are made closer to their needs and are thus more innovative. For the same reason, the sector also plays an important role in democratic decision-making, as it can bring expertise in tackling social injustice to the deliberation table (e.g. Habermas, 1990). Finally, it has the potential to increase the social, political and economic autonomy of people (e.g. Keane, 1993, 1998), thus making a real contribution to individuals and communities alike. The goal is to integrate marginalized and socially excluded people through several economic and political principles that build a bridge between the public welfare state and a strong civil society.

At the same time, there are some obvious barriers to those multiple roles. While the third sector is traditionally the sphere of political advocacy and service provision, today it is defined increasingly in economic terms as it is expected to take on functions, traditionally located within welfare state responsibility, through public- private partnerships and service contracts or as hybrid organisations with characteristics of the social economy that substitutes state provision. The challenge that this presents is that much of staff time and effort has to be devoted not only to securing funding for the service (including getting co-funding) but also into monitoring and recording achievements and meeting the technical and accountability demands of both the state agencies and government departments (Harvey, 2014). At the same time, legislation concerning the non-profit sector has not always caught up with this new reality, making it difficult for organisations to embrace their hybrid identity.

Changes in the TS/SE are embedded in the broader context of what scholars essentially describe as the political sphere giving in to market fundamentalism, turning the foundations of citizenship from non-contractual to market-driven (Somers, 2008) and eroding social citizenship (see SOLIDUS Deliverable 4.2). There is a hope that civil society based organisations can address the crisis of political legitimacy in European democracies and

propose crisis-resilient socio-economic practices. After discussion with the SOLIDUS consortium we opted for a solidarity economy framework, particularly developed by Laville et al., that addresses the democratic, the social and the economic dimensions of TS/SE action and in which collaboration with surrounding public institutions is conceptually included (see chapter 3).

2 Methodology

2.1 Problem orientation

Empirical work carried out in this WP focussed on social and policy action, looking at third sector and social economy organisations interacting with public institutions in the process of producing and enhancing solidarity (through public sector collaboration and social innovation) and if and how solidarity actions reflect on social policy. One of the aims was to identify modes of collaboration that have the potential of becoming a channel for innovation of services and resources that empower citizens and communities to face the negative consequences of marketization and privatization. This required developing an understanding of the conditions of collaboration:

- Who **initiates, designs and implements** activities and services;
- What are the **different resources** provided by public institutions and TS/SE organisations, in terms of financial support, advocacy power, trust, reciprocity;
- What are the **outcomes in the sense of fostering the autonomy** of individuals, embedded in communities;
- What are the **drivers and barriers** within and across political, cultural and socio-economic contexts?

The focus on autonomy is rooted in the solidarity economy approach and to some extent excludes TS/SE organisations that engage in solidarity actions that focus purely on relief, i.e. first aid for refugees, food banks or shelter for the homeless. The focus is more on transformation that results in inclusion in socio-economic life, a democratic solidarity that builds on redistribution to ‘reinforce social cohesion and to redress inequality’ and an egalitarian understanding of reciprocity as a way to enhance ‘voluntary social relations between free and equal citizens’ (Laville, 2014: 107), inspired by the concept of communicative rationality, equal rights and self-organisation in relation to state and market (Salmon & Laville, 2015), thus contributing to social justice and equality in line with and beyond the requirements of social policy to promote societal integration. Laville and Hulgård find that welfare states of the 21st century have difficulties in linking ‘positively the institutional capacity of the welfare state to citizen driven initiatives and hybrid entities that are emerging at an increasing speed’ (2016). The analysis of examples of collaboration between public institutions and TS/SE organisations within their political, cultural and socio-economic contexts can shed light on the distribution of roles, identify some of the drivers and barriers, and raise awareness not only of the social, but also the democratic and

economic potentials of collaboration, two dimensions that need highlighting in the context of disenchantment with politics and market-driven rhetoric in social protection.

When chasing the channels of solidarity formed by inputs from TS/SE the goal is to address barriers and obstacles to re-integrate marginalized and socially excluded people. In this context we decided to integrate reflections on New Public Governance (Osborne, 2010) and co-production (Brandsen, Pestoff year) with the solidarity economy (SE) approach (Laville, 2010). Both traditions are emphasising the need for building collaborative arenas for policymaking, bringing together the democratic, the social and the economic dimension. Providing institutional arrangements that strike the right balance between the welfare state and TS/SE, i.e. in form of a 'welfare mix' made of shared responsibilities among various types of actors: state, private for-profit companies, and communities (Pestoff, 2005; Evers & Laville, 2004; Laville & Hulgård, 2016) is the task for an enabling public sector. According to Cornforth *et al.* (2015) it involves collaborative and dynamic partnerships in the shape of formalized, joint-working arrangements between organizations that remain legally autonomous while engaging in on-going, coordinated collective action to achieve outcomes that no one would have achieved independently. Brinkerhoff (2002) adds that such partnerships are based on mutually agreed objectives, pursued through a shared understanding of the most rational division of labour based on the respective comparative advantage of each partner, and a clear definition of rules and responsibilities (Brandsen *et al.*, 2014). In other words, the vision of self-organisation may lead stakeholders to new collaborative networks, institutional and organisational arrangements that work well if conditioned by trust, reciprocity, shared values and missions (Castells 1996, Agranoff, 2007).

Whereas social economy, or the third sector, describe a certain set of organizations, solidarity economy opens up the broader question of their relationship to both *economy* and *democracy*. Organizations in a solidarity economy are envisaged from the outset as voluntarily engaged in forms of public action for the common good (Laville/ Salmon, 2015). The participatory governance dimension takes centre stage in a conceptualisation of the social economy that highlights a more organic notion of solidarity rooted in pluralist civil society and social movements, coupling it with economic understandings of citizen initiatives and third sector. Hence solidarity economy can be regarded as complementary to third sector and social economy, existing next to the for-profit market, embedded in the broader societal framework through both economic and political dimensions. Actors in the solidarity framework are consumers or users, workers, and volunteers, but also representatives of public authorities or providers of capital (Gardin 2014), as TS/SE organisations must work closely together with state institutions, who provide funding by 'ordering' services, provide the legal structures, knowledge and know-how, or even have a place on the Board (see Graph 1).

Graph 1: Institutional contribution to collaboration

	Denmark (17)	Germany (14)	Portugal (46)	Slovakia (21)	Spain (12)	All countries (190)
providing know-how	88%	86%	59%	57%	58%	64%
providing funding	71%	86%	54%	19%	42%	54%
providing human resources	65%	14%	37%	57%	42%	43%
providing in-kind support	35%	29%	28%	43%	50%	31%
helping with legislative issues	53%	29%	15%	48%	33%	27%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

The **political dimension** shows itself in the gradual loss of the welfare state to protect its citizens against risks of social exclusions. It is increasingly urgent to understand how actions of solidarity can be channelled from the societal periphery to the centre, replacing redistributive solidarity in the welfare state to a state enabling horizontal expressions of solidarity, i.e. for co-production, but also for lobbying for rights, or for new ways of delivering services: ‘If unchallenged by actions of solidarity and reciprocity these changes will gradually speed up an already on-going process towards a disintegrated society’ (Laville & Hulgård, 2016). Here, solidarity economy is inspired by Habermas, who understood civil society as emancipatory power if admitted access to the public sphere. In the centre of his argument stands the application of a sluice model of problem solving and communication that is a crucial part of his version of deliberative democracy (Habermas, 1997: 356), a process that can be facilitated by public sector-TS/SE collaboration, particularly when organisations successfully initiate or co-design a project or service. The public sphere perspective (Edwards, 2004) is crucial in such a model of co-production and solidarity economy to establish institutionalised forms of co-production and collaboration with civil society.

It is important to clarify that *economy* in this context refers to the **pluralist notion of economic action** elaborated by Polanyi that dominates the solidarity economy literature, which includes market economy, non-market economy and non-monetary economy, the latter two describing 1) redistribution of produced goods and services by foundations or public institutions as part of the welfare state, providing citizens with individual rights, subject to democratic control; and 2) redistribution of goods based on reciprocity, turning vulnerable people into co-producers and co-owners (Laville, 2014; Laville & Salmon, 2015: 148-151), but also expressed in volunteering or mutual support and commitment. Hence economy is linked to changes in the reality of individuals, to communities within a polity, and

to actual spending on social policy implementation, taking into account the social, financial and democratic return on solidarity action and collaboration. The pressure on welfare states to cut down public spending has triggered the growth of hybrid organisations that strive for the satisfaction of their own members' needs or the social inclusion of vulnerable groups. Using plural resources to reach their mission can be beneficial for their target groups when they co-create employment, engage in mutual relationships or improve their well-being and health to become active citizens.

Different organisational and institutional logics and objectives are bound to make collaboration a rocky path that requires resources like funding, trust, and supportive legislation. While public institutions must act rationally in their different fields of responsibility, bound by social policy as much as institutional inertia, TS/SE organisations constitute a space of value pluralism and freedom and contribute to 'the diversity of particular values, cultural practices and citizens' initiatives in all domains of social life'. The principle of reciprocity allows them to mobilize voluntary resources 'that are more difficult to mobilize, if not impossible, for other organizational forms' (Enjolras 2015: 19-20). On the other hand, they must also understand institutional processes to develop an organisational strategy for they collaboration with public institutions that both deepens relationships (i.e. in the form of long-standing service provision, participation in committees, and personal relationships) and that safeguards them from take-over or isomorphism. The new synthesis between social protection and marketization is not only a threat but also offers opportunities to turn the social dimension into economic strength (wage = autonomy/ participation = social inclusion), provided top-down policies promote collaborative arenas offering entry points for solidarity actions developed in civil society (holistic view on common good and participatory partnerships vs. service contracts for narrowly defined field) and active notions of citizenship (WP4).

2.2 Methods

The SOLIDUS Grant Agreement listed several methods of data collection for this WP:

National Background Reports

All partners provided an assessment of the third sector and public administration regime of a given country to understand the permeability of public institutions for new ideas and practices. This goes hand in hand with a review of top-down support structures for third sector and social economy in its different facets. Partners were also asked to identify policies facilitating co-production in the four policy fields of education, employment, health and housing. In Spain it was the University of Deusto, in the UK the University of Edinburgh who submitted the report.

Focus Groups

Six partners (Portugal, Spain, Germany Denmark, Slovakia and the UK) organised focus group interviews with up to 8 representatives of TS/SE organisations and public sector to offer first

insights in different logics and expectations when public agencies and TS/SE organisations are working together, and to discover scope and process of a possible fusion of horizons. Some were participants in previous SOLIDUS WPs and selected for this reason, others are new actors working in different fields to cover the SOLIDUS policy areas housing, employment, education, and health. Participants were invited by email, followed by a phone call and the agenda. Before the interviews the anonymity of participants was confirmed and the use of information shared agreed. Focus groups were recorded and transcribed/ synthesized. The focus group guide can be found in Annex 1.

Table 1:

City/ Country/ Partner	Date	Type of participants
Bilbao, Spain	23 November	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 TS/SE representatives
University of Deusto	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 researcher
Lisbon, Portugal	13 September	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 TS/SE representatives
National School of Public Health	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 public official
Leipzig, Germany	5 September	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 TS/SE representatives
Leipzig University	2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 local policy-maker
Roskilde, Denmark	12 June 2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 TS/SE representatives
Roskilde University		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 municipality representatives • 1 national advocacy organisation
Edinburgh, Scotland	August-	
University of Edinburgh	September 2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 TS/SE representatives
Banska Bystrica, Slovakia	June 14 th and July	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 TS/SE representatives
University of Banska Bystrica	4 th 2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 municipality representatives • 1 public official • 1 researcher

Cases studies

We have selected cases that provide evidence of successful collaboration in principle, even though challenges remain owing to institutional logics and/ or changing framework conditions/ political opportunities, that sometimes open new paths for collaboration, and sometimes obstruct successful collaborations of the past. Using a solidarity economy framework we furthermore focus on cases that seek to foster the autonomy of individuals in social, economic and democratic terms, and who think of their target groups as citizens rather than customers or clients.

Three cases each were selected in Spain, Portugal, Denmark, Germany, Slovakia and the UK

that broadly operate in different policy fields (even though many address more than one issue) that were deemed as overall successful examples of collaboration by SOLIDUS researchers in the different countries (see table 2). Due to the wide definition of TS/SE different types of organisations were selected. Even though some are linked to international NGOS or programmes they were usually investigated at local level, also pointing out connections to regional or national policy domain where applicable. Focus in the case analysis were on internal and external democracy, defined as type of collaboration (initiator/ co-designer/ co-implementer of a service or action) and working relationship with public agencies; on the economic dimension in terms of resources, activities fostering the autonomy of their target group, and the impact of their economic leverage on dealings with public sector; and on the social impact at individual and community levels. The conclusion of each case study report refers to drivers and barriers for each organisation's socio-economic and collaborative efforts. The interview guidelines can be found in annex 2.

Table 2. Types of organisations selected for case study work

Types of organisation	Distinguishing criteria	Similar cases
Social enterprise	Enabling target group to achieve a degree of social and economic autonomy through employment, using hybrid sources of income	Employment/ Education Grennesminde (Denmark), MUG, USE (Germany), Deaf Kebab, (Slovakia)
Non-profit organisation/ association	Providing a service to benefit the target group, using public redistribution and volunteering, engaging in advocacy	Health Cycling Without Age (Denmark), Médicos del Mundo (Spain), Door to Door Health (Portugal) Housing ETP (Slovakia), Kontaktstelle Wohnen (Germany) Glasgow Homelessness Network (Scotland) Education/ Employment Teach for Slovakia (Slovakia) Emergency Shelters Red Cross (Portugal) People's Kitchen of Mouraria (Portugal)

		GAME (Denmark)
Advocacy & service organisation (various legal forms)	Working towards recognition and practical support schemes for certain groups	Health/ Employment The Health and Social Care Alliance, PPPF (Scotland)
Non-profit Cooperative	Providing social services and employment, including to vulnerable groups (i.e. women during economic crisis), participatory decision-making, clear legal frameworks	Employment/ Health SSI Cooperative, Spain
Foundation	Providing advocacy, training, recommendations, working with employees rather than volunteers	Health New Health Foundation (Spain)

Online Survey

The SOLIDUS Terms of Reference for WP5 proposed to carry out an online survey based on a mapping of 100 ‘key actors in the their sector and social innovation initiatives at local and regional level’. As decided at the SOLIDUS consortium meeting in Budapest in May 2017 the online survey was not sent to third sector stakeholders but to people working within the public sector, collaborating with civil society organisations in the areas of health, housing, education, employment. In this work package we assume civic engagement to be a crosscutting issue rather than a policy field in its own right, therefore a minimum of 25 names was required per policy area. Policy directed at increasing civic engagement is reflected in the survey questions.

The SOLIDUS Online Survey was conducted in 2017 in all SOLIDUS countries as a Computer Assisted Web Interview (CAWI). The fieldwork phase started November 2, 2017, and ended six weeks later, on December 6, 2017. The questionnaire was originally designed in English and then translated into the respondents’ local languages: Greek, Danish, German, Hungarian, Norwegian, Dutch, Portuguese, Slovak, and Spanish (see Appendix A.3 for the complete English questionnaire). For programming the questionnaire, sending out invitation, and for surveying, the open source software LimeSurvey was used, which was installed on a server hosted by the University of Barcelona. The respondents received a personalized invitation by email and two reminders in the following weeks.

A total of 1,433 invitations were sent to public offices cooperating with civil society organisations in 12 countries. 158 participants completed the questionnaire (giving a response rate of 11 %), while 321 partially completed it (22 % of the sample). This relatively low response rate was, among other factors, caused by a large number of invitations being blocked by SPAM-filter systems and never reaching their destination. With 41 % in Portugal and 2 % in the UK, response rates differ greatly between countries. We therefore analysed countries separately from each other. The respondents' country was asked at the end of the questionnaire, which resulted in a remarkable number of item non-responses. Although the survey data is anonymous, the respondents' country could still be assigned based on information about language settings for those that did not complete the survey. However, this was not possible for respondents from Greece, Cyprus, the UK, and Ireland, because in these cases language settings (Greece and English) were identical in different countries. Due to the low response rate in most countries only some of the results are used in this report. The full online survey report can be found in Annex 3. Graphs used in this report only reflect results from WP5 key countries Denmark, Germany, Portugal, Slovakia and Spain. Due to the low response rate of stakeholders from the UK we decided to not include the results at all and for that same reason in other countries the online survey first of all supplements the qualitative case study and does not contain representative and general value in itself.

WP5 is building on previous WPs that examined territorial and spatial (WP2) and inter- and intra-group aspects of solidarity (WP3), both analysing accountability and transparency, internal democracy, recognition, social and political impact as criteria of success. All work packages including WP5 link closely with social and active citizenship (WP4) which is why in this WP we only focus on the policy fields of housing, employment, education and health, viewing active citizenship as a crosscutting characteristic. All WPs focus on the internal functioning of social initiatives as well as their external relations and impact to assess drivers and barriers that will eventually merge into overall recommendations on fostering social solidarity.

3. Channelling solidarity through collaboration

3.1 Institutional contexts of TS/SE - public administration collaboration

As pointed out in other WP reports, the SOLIDUS consortium represents a broad array of countries with very different traditions of public welfare, notions of third sector, social economy and civil society. The different trajectories of collaboration with civil society expose the various degrees of openness of the system for bottom-up input. The TS/SE and solidarity economy literature, as well as evidences from SOLIDUS WPs 2-5 demonstrate the important role of political openness and collaboration with public administration to consolidate

solidarity actions and to achieve policy impact.

As WPs 2-5 demonstrate contacts to micro- and meso-policy level and administration is key in order to achieve social and advocacy impact. ‘At the national macro level, cross-national comparisons consistently display a correlation between indicators of social capital, political engagement, well-being on the one hand, and the size of the third sector, on the other hand’ (Enjolras, 2016:3). Enjolras divides the Nordic countries and Northern European countries, characterized by high levels of social trust, well-being, health, and political engagement, from Eastern European countries that score low on those indicators. Southern countries are located inbetween. ‘High scores on these indicators coincide with vibrant civil societies, absence of corruption, strong trust in institutions, high scores on all indices of economic and gender equality, and a culture of adherence to laws and regulations alongside a critical attitude towards politicians and excessive state power’ (ibid). Apart from providing the structural conditions to support the advocacy function of civil society, Hulgård argues that notions of welfare state and social citizenship are equally important factors that determine civil society in a given country (Hulgård, 2015:214).

There are clearly different traditions of working with civil society, sometimes with a stronger focus on the expressive function of organisations, sometimes on the social services third sector organisations deliver in social market economies like Germany, Denmark, Norway or the Netherlands, or the social economy in Spain with its history of cooperatives. Some differentiation between countries within groups is interesting when it comes to TS/SE and public sector collaboration, taking into account, i.e. public administrative reform in Slovakia which introduced self-governed municipalities and opened up collaboration with NGOs, or the strong impact of regional autonomy in Scotland or the Basque country when it comes to drafting their own legislation how to work with the sector. However, all these countries have been affected by the financial crisis in 2008 because of the implementation of neoliberal policies based on austerity.

Clustering the SOLIDUS countries based on Esping Andersen’s approach on welfare states we compare:

- (a) the Nordic or social democratic model (Denmark)
- (b) Continental or conservative model (Germany)
- (c) Anglo-Saxon or liberal model (UK)
- (d) Mediterranean (Cyprus, Greece, Spain and Portugal)
- (e) Central-European including post- communist countries (Hungary and Slovakia). ¹

Nordic countries

As elaborated in Deliverable 2.2., ‘Nordic countries are characterised by deploying vertical

¹ The Netherlands and Norway fall under (a), Ireland under (c), Cyprus and Greece under (d) and Hungary under (e). All those countries also provided National Background Reports, but did not participate in focus group and case study tasks, hence are only occasionally referred to.

strategies to a greater extent than the remainder countries in Europe, which reflects a high level of redistribution of public resources’ (2017:15). The Danish welfare state has its roots in the farmer and worker cooperative movements in the 19th century, who took care of the interests of their members until the establishment of social welfare and protection policies in the 1930s (Hulgård & Bisballe, 2008; SOLIDUS WP2 National Background Report). Public social welfare services expanded during the 1960s and 1970s, triggering the emergence of new social actors on the back of the social movements of the time (Hulgård & Bisballe 2008: 8). The 1976 Danish Social Assistance Act subjected voluntary social organisations and institutions to government regulation, with the public sector financing nearly all activities. The 1980s saw a first turn away from the all-encompassing welfare state, driven by economic recession and the call for decentralisation to look for bottom-up solutions to social problems. This was facilitated by cross-sectorial programmes and a turn towards active welfare in which citizenship is integral part of the institutional-redistributive welfare state.

Today the cooperative sector is mostly active in the field of housing, while non-profit organisations are active in providing social services, education and culture in collaboration with and mostly funded by the public sector. In 2010 the TS accounted for 13% of total employment (Sivesind & Salle, 2010), and generated an annual income of 3 billion DKK in 2012, representing 9.2% of Danish GDP (frivillighet.dk, 2014). 44% of the sector’s income is public funding (ibid. 78), the rest comes from donations, membership fees, economic activity and foundation-based sources like the Social Capital Fund set up in 2011 and Social Capital Fund Invest (2017). Non-profit organisations can obtain compensation for irrecoverable VAT. Approx. 35% of the Danish population over the age of 16, a good 3.1 million people, is engaged in voluntary work (frivillighed.dk, 2014).

The traditional mode of working with TS/SE organisations is vertical, with public institutions designing projects and asking an association or NGO to implement it. This top-down approach is slowly shifting, with more initiatives collaborating bottom-up, but municipalities still struggle with this new kind of partnership, blurring boundaries between public and non-public providers (Henriksen et al., 2012).

CASE STUDY 1, Denmark: Cycling without Age (*Cykling uden alder*)

Cycling Without Age (CWA) is a volunteer-based non-profit organisation working with municipalities and public elderly care homes around the country to take old people for bike rides, making them feel ‘wind in their hair’. The pilots who ride the bikes, custom-made rickshaws in which old people can sit comfortably, are volunteers from the town. The goal is overcome loneliness among the elderly CWA sees itself as creating community, due to the involvement of different groups and generations (old people, pilots, nursing staff, and the local population that gets involved when cyclists stop), while selling a service to municipalities who want to improve elderly care and demonstrate citizen engagement policy. Until summer 2017, CWA insured their volunteer pilots, a practice that municipalities were previously unable to do. ‘So what kind of conditions will it give us when the framework

for this will change and the municipalities from the 1st of July, can insure the volunteers themselves? Will it then be a municipal-controlled thing around the country?’

CWA staff feels that the bottom-up approach can build solidarity and community, while the top-down approach is service and policy oriented and thus with too much reliance and expectations on volunteers: ‘We are trying to avoid the traditional concept of volunteering, because very often it puts people into boxes—and you can say that within the public sector we see an overexploitation of volunteers and volunteer jobs that needs to be filled in, and there has started to occur a blurry line between being employed and being an volunteer’ (CWA founder).

At national level several measures were taken to increase not only collaboration in the field of social services, but also in policy development. 2008 saw the establishment of the Volunteer Council, which advises the Minister of Social Affairs and the Danish Parliament on the voluntary sector's role and efforts in relation to social challenges. The corporatist tradition in Denmark means that interest organisations are frequently invited to advise government on drafting legislation, providing information for the government and legitimacy for the policies adopted, thereby facilitating implementation’ (Laursen et al. 2016: 54).

Already in 1988 the Danish Government launched the Social Development Programme that promoted the restructuring of social policy to strengthen local communities and voluntary organisations, e.g. in the field of employment through work integration social enterprises (WISEs). 31 per cent of WISEs employ individuals with a disability, 40 per cent of enterprises employ individuals with mental illness. Over a quarter of WISEs also employ individuals who are homeless, alcoholic, drug addicts or prostitutes. Employment in WISEs can be on a permanent basis or as part of active labour market policies. In 2008, non-public organisations organised 20% of activities previously offered by public employment services (Hulgård & Bisballe, 2008).

Voluntary organisations promoting education, health and participation are funded by national and local levels. In 2013 the government pursued a health model that involved the citizen rather than the patient. The new focus was centred on equality in health and more citizen involvement through emphasizing partnerships across sectors. Citizens, patients and relatives were framed as active participants in health activities (Danish Health and Medicines Authority, 2013), and prevention activities were declared municipal responsibility, to be realised in collaboration with local TS/SE organisations.

Case Study 3, Denmark: GAME

The motto of GAME is ‘We Love Asphalt’, reflecting that GAME is about street sport and street culture. The vision is to ‘create lasting social change through youth-led street sports and culture’ in various cities in Denmark since 2002. They mainly operate in low-level income and ethnically diverse areas and want to support participation in sports activities among

young people from this segment of society. Activities in GAME cover a vast array of street related activities centred round so-called GAME-zones, ‘places where we have pop-up activities in vulnerable neighbourhoods. It is simple workouts managed by a playmaker, who is a local role model that has been educated and gone through personal development, or as a road to building a career’ (GAME Board member). The playmakers are volunteers. Funds come from municipal and national levels, a foundation and social housing associations.

One of the municipal contacts underlines how GAME activities fit in their objectives: ‘One of GAME’s core principles is access. Together with our thoughts of the need to have various offers for the young people here in Viborg we clearly saw that we share similar values. Our challenge is that when young people enter their teenage years then a large share falls outside of the traditional frame of reference of what sports associations in Denmark offer. They have a different need, and when GAME came to us, we really thought they matched a need for attracting young people in a socially secure place where it is combined with creativity and movement at the same time’ (municipality representative).

How to create more citizen-centered services is part of a broader debate on the role of government at both national and municipal levels (Bekkers, 2016). At the same time governments have been turning towards more market-oriented social policies (Hulgård & Andersen, 2015). In 2013 the Danish Government earmarked a DKK 25 million budget to support social enterprises. Since 2015 organisation can officially register as social enterprise, provided they demonstrate a social purpose, significant commercial activity, independence of public authorities, inclusive governance and a ‘social management of profits’ (Act on Registered Social Enterprises). In 2016 155 out of approximately 400 had registered, nearly 80% had less than 10 employees, and were mostly publicly funded. 40% of all SEs are WISEs, the rest is active in the fields of social welfare, health, culture an environmental protection (Bach, 2016).

Case Study 2, Denmark: Grennesminde

Grennesminde is what we could label a Multiple Purpose Social Enterprise. For 30 years it has offered housing, training and employment for young people with learning, cognitive and mental disabilities. They run small businesses like a kitchen, an organic farm, a café and a forgery, where they train people who were struggling with the education system, preparing them for an independent life. ‘Our vision is that we work for a society where everyone can participate in collaboration with other labour market players and interest groups. We work with people on the edge of the labour market. Our goal is to generate wellbeing and joy, and we think it is best possible through the mantra “Everyone has the right to a colleague” —in other words; it is the labour market we primary work with, because we believe that colleagues more than anything create inclusion’ (CEO, Grennesminde).

Most of their income is generated by selling employment to municipalities around Copenhagen, but they experience a huge difference in how much different local administrations are willing to invest in the support of vulnerable young people, which clashes with the holistic approach of Grennesminde to not only offer labour market integration but to support the whole individual's well-being, which includes raising awareness of issues ranging from personal hygiene over healthy nutrition to professional attire. 'We care about the young people having work uniforms. However, some municipalities openly state that they can work in whatever clothes they already have, and the problem then is that we can't really enter a conflict with them because then they probably won't use us anymore' (CEO Grennesminde). Dependencies like this make equal partnerships a challenge. They are also an incentive to generate more income from business activities.

Municipalities are under pressure to reduce public spending, purchasing services from social enterprises that potentially also generate income from other sources is attractive, but as one stakeholder who works as a consultant on social economy in rural northern Denmark criticises: 'This is happening instead of looking at long term effects, today the way things are done is very close to what can be called result oriented thinking, instead of an effect oriented thinking. From this current approach what is harvested are 'here and now' winnings and that has some consequences for the way the municipality is experimenting, because the idea of pushing the boundaries and thinking a bit more long-term does not happen' (focus group participant).

The shift from top-down welfare delivery opens new participatory arenas for TS/SE organisations 'as central and local government are being urged to cooperate with social actors so as to become more innovative in how they tackle their tasks' (Hulgård & Andersen, 2015:34). There are various new support structures for SE organisations in terms of representation of interest, access to resources, and knowledge structures. However, several years into the experiment a more bottom-up approach that goes beyond the purchasing of services by municipalities from TS/SE organisations and that lives up to the promise of policy emphasis on citizen participation and collaboration across sectors is still not a reality across the country.

Continental model

The German welfare state has a long tradition of working with TS organisations in the fields of social protection. A broad definition of civil society is dominant, encompassing associations, cooperatives, private limited companies, social limited companies, and foundations. While acknowledging the advocacy role of TS organisations (Zimmer & Priller 2007), the dominant mode of collaboration consists of service delivery, expressed through the principle of subsidiarity, which has established an extensive pillarised infrastructure of welfare organisations working within the frameworks of social policy, especially the local level. About two thirds of all TS organisations are cooperating with governmental

institutions, particularly associations and limited companies (Priller et al., 2012). The pillarization refers to the stratification of the third sector and its division into area-specific, vertically integrated ‘pillars’, consisting of umbrella associations operating at national and federal level, and membership organisations operating at the local level of governance that provide services for their members and/or the general public (Zimmer et al., 2009).

The pillars themselves used to be embedded in specific social milieus, drawing a faithful membership. As such homogeneous contexts are disappearing, voluntary organisations face increasing difficulties in finding a long-term volunteer work force, despite a policy discourse promoting citizen engagement, shaped at national level by the German Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women, and Youth. At the same time, Federal Government has been increasingly focussed on cost-containment strategies, no longer levelling public subsidies for deficits in social and health care at the end of the fiscal year, but modifying the subsidiarity principle to allow commercial providers to enter the competition for service contracts. At the same time, regional and local governments modernized local governance through the introduction of instruments and techniques of the new public management approach, including contract management and competitive tendering (Hoemke et al. 2016), shifting funding from block grant to project-related grants. Not surprising, in 2011 about 70% of organisations reported difficulties with public agencies, like the dependency on public funds, stricter regulations in relation to funds and how to administer them (Priller et al., 2012).

Case study 1, Germany: Kontaktstelle Wohnen

Kontaktstelle Wohnen (Contact Point Housing) is a registered association in the German city of Leipzig that matches refugees with so-called volunteer housing mentors who assist them in finding a flat. Between late 2015 and November 2017 they helped more than 270 individuals and sometimes extended families to find a flat. This number constitutes one fifth of asylum seekers as of late 2017. Reasons for Kontaktstelle’s success in pursuing their mission are high commitment of individuals, political good-will and the generally high level of publicity and volunteer-turnout during the height of refugee influx to Germany in 2015. It is also drawing resources from two very different social and political groups in Leipzig, one faith-based and the other from the political left-wing milieu, who share a concern for humane living-conditions for refugees and more generally a welcome culture in the city.

Now running with 14 part-time staff members they have been recognized as a model project by local and federal politicians, but collaboration with the social administration started as a rocky path. Only when the administration realized it was overwhelmed with the sheer numbers of refugees did they agree to share responsibility, but the relationship remains hierarchical between funding and recipient organisations. ‘I would call the relationship benevolent, but it is not what I associate with trust relations. Sometimes reality collides with

administration, every day we deal with inflexible regulations that make life harder on both sides' (staff and board member, Kontaktstelle Wohnen).

Similar to other European countries and despite the policy setbacks discussed before, the third sector in Germany looks back on a growth story in terms of job creation and employment (Zimmer et al. 2013). In 2007, the third sector in Germany included about 105,000 different organisations that employed about 2.6 million employees, 2.3 million of whom were liable for social security contributions. This corresponds to 9% of all employees (Rosenski 2012) and nearly 5% of the German GDP (Anheier et al. 2014). 40% of the sector's employment is in the fields of social services and health care (Zimmer et al., 2013). Faith-based organisations employ about 80% of TS work force (Zimmer & Priller, 2007). About 40% of the positions are part-time, 75% of the labour force are women. Basic care provision and regulation are centralised, and the responsibility for 'additional' health services lies with the municipalities, with healthcare provision performed both by free welfare associations as well as by commercial providers, following the principles of 'subsidiarity'.

In the field of employment and education, third sector organisations in Germany are primarily concerned with the recruitment of disadvantaged persons and their integration into the job market (Anheier et al. 2015a). Important actors in this field are employer associations and trade unions representing employees with strong advocacy power at all administrative levels, but also social enterprises with an income mix of state provisions from job agencies, pension funds and social services on the one hand and market-based income on the other. For new third sector organisation initiatives that focus on social service provision, the term social enterprise has become more popular in recent years (Jansen et al. 2013), but collaboration with public administration by way of service contracts is largely limited to protected employment or other forms of work integration, following similar structures of subsidiarity as in other fields of social protection.

Case study 2, Germany: Union Sozialer Einrichtungen (USE)

USE is a social enterprise registered as a social limited company (gGmbH) that offers professional rehabilitation and education for people with mental health diagnosis, accompanies re-integration into the labour market if possible, and employs people who need more protected work arrangements in 30 different workshops and professions in five locations in Berlin. Founded in 1995 it was the first protected workshop for mentally ill people in West Berlin. Today, USE employs more than 300 professional staff and offers training, employment and support services to about 1100 people with disabilities. It is a member of one the six largest welfare organisations in the field of social care and protection in Berlin, which are represented at national level by yet another umbrella organization in the social care pillar.

The success of USE's work depends on cooperation with a number of public institutions and political participation as members of larger umbrella organisations, state-working groups, as well as through private contacts. Challenges in Berlin are a lack of trust between administration and social organisations following a scandal in another publicly funded welfare organization in 2010, that also resulted in a modification of funding practice, the pressure on district administration to reduce public spending, and the future design of a new law fostering inclusion of people with disabilities into regular employment. Today there are 17 protected workshops run by different social organization in Berlin, fostering a healthy competition between them and thus offering choice for people who cannot or no longer work in the first labour market.

As an increasing number of TS organisations is moving into raising funds through market activities in addition to redistribution and reciprocity, the tax regulations for the sector are a challenge: organisations that are non-profits or work on behalf of the common good (defined through the German Fiscal Code) can obtain a tax-exempt status. However, money earned through activities not covered by German Fiscal Law are subject to income tax, making book-keeping of third sector organisation activities whilst keeping in compliance with the complexity of tax regulations an exceedingly difficult task (Hoemke et al. 2016). In addition to that, generating income can lead to a reduction in public funding for certain services, as the return on investment for workshops cannot be more than 2-3% and must be re-invested in the social mission. In order to make extra money, i.e. to adapt salaries to inflation, introduce extra payments for employees at the end of the year or invest in equipment, USE has a few pillars that generate a legal surplus. 'The state expects me to participate with my own financial resources but does not answer the question how to obtain those resources in the first place' (CEO USE). By now the organization earns about 50% of its income on the market.

Against the background of the demographic change leading to a rising number of people in need of care and rising costs in healthcare provision the social care sector continues to strengthen the relevance of the third sector's services (Anheier et al. 2015a), particularly in areas that are state responsibility. After all, TS/SE organisations demonstrate higher impact in certain fields due to a holistic approach. This is also the case in the field of labour activation, as demonstrated by the third SOLIDUS case study for this WP.

Case study 3, Germany: Mit uns gelingt's (MUG)

MUG is a registered association with a more than 20 years long history of work integration activities in Brandenburg, particularly in Potsdam and the Uckermark, a rural region that has seen soaring unemployment rates following reunification in 1989, as many businesses closed. In 2012 unemployment was still at 15,5 %, the highest rate in the whole country. MUG Uckermark offers state-funded coaching, implements employment schemes by job agencies and participates in EU-funded rural development programmes with the goal of

helping unemployed people back in the first labour market. In 2015 MUG launched a social enterprise to help long-term unemployed people with multiple employment obstacles, which has so far generated a much higher rate of successful labour market integration than common top-down approaches.

MUG association draws funding from contracts for public work integration programmes, the EU LEADER programme, ESF funding and national grants. The social enterprise uses a provision in Social Law that not many companies apply for, subsidizing 75% of the salary of currently 11 previously long-term unemployment staff members for a duration of 24 months, during which time they are exposed to new areas of work and experience under professional guidance, go through work placements and professional qualification where financially possible, and receive regular coaching by a social pedagogue specialized in work and vocational training that increases self-confidence and self-efficiency (Social Pedagogue, MUG). All products and services are sold at market rate. The CEO of the organization is actively involved in the design and initiation of a Brandenburg directive on social enterprises as agents for employment that promises to cover 100% of employment of professional trainers and social-pedagogical coaching in social enterprises in the state of Brandenburg, paid for with ESF funds.

On the whole, the third sector in Germany, as in other European countries, is under stress (Zimmer & Pahl, 2016). While municipalities have long-term working relationships with traditional TS organisations in social welfare, childcare and labour activation and started cooperating with a number of newly and ad-hoc formed organisations during the height of influx of refugees, the sector suffers from less public spending, increased competition for service contracts, mounting bureaucracy and changes in volunteer commitment. Many follow the model of social enterprises using hybrid resources: redistribution and market mechanisms, and reciprocity in terms of extensive motivation of leaders, staff and members, and the labour force of volunteers. 'It is only possible to be professionally social with the right financial possibilities. This is the only way to operate at eye-to-eye level with public agencies' (CEO USE).

Mediterranean model

Spain

Countries associated with the Mediterranean model have weaker welfare states than their northern neighbours and care still relies on families. 'This model maybe centralised or decentralized depending on the type of policy. For instance, in **Spain**, while health and education are decentralised, employment and housing are strongly centralized' (Deliverable 2.2, 2017:19). Between 1989 and 2002 the welfare state was transformed into private delivery of public services in Spain, going hand in hand with the establishment of new funding tools for TS/SE organisations, most remarkably the introduction of a 0,52%

(increased to 0,7% in 2006) allocation of income tax to social organisations. Accordingly, collaboration occurs with a variety of social organisations, dominated by the social economy framework that includes cooperatives and mutuals that produce for the market but highlight features such as the expression of social solidarity, as well as charitable purpose or advocacy organisations (Chaves et al., 2016). More recently the ‘social action third sector’ has entered public discourse, a sphere that includes both public activities of the state and private actions by citizens and associations, based on volunteering and altruistic motives such as the promotion of social justice, social cohesion and social inclusion (Montagut, 2008).

Numbers collected as part of the TSI project count 151,725 active associations in Spain: 27,345 entities belonged to the social third sector and 124,380 to other areas (culture, sports and leisure; education and research; community development and housing; civil rights; and others). These associations represented 28.3 million members. They employ 470,348 people and generated expenditure of over €22.500 million. There were also 1,644 social third sector foundations, with 28,868 employees that generated €1.052 million in expenditures, as well as 2,548 foundations in other sectors, with 18,082 employees and an expenditure of €1.767 million (TSI 2016b: 10). The Spanish Confederation of Social Economy Enterprises (CEPES) estimates that in 2016 there were 43,002 social economic entities operating in Spain, generating 2,230,781 direct and indirect jobs. They included 20,384 active cooperatives, 207 work integration social enterprises, 500 special employment centres and 7,134 associations supporting people with disabilities or vulnerable people (CEPES, 2017). While the sector is large, there are comparatively low levels of volunteering in Spain, heritage of the military dictatorship (1936-1975), during which associations and freedom of expression were restricted. Less than 30% of the population are engaged in civic activities (Chaves-Avila, 2016), but there has been an increase of citizen engagement during the years of financial crisis.

Spanish strategies working with civil society are supported a) by the legal recognition of the capacity of third sector to contribute to public needs, and b) by third sector umbrella entities that make a common voice to influence public policies possible. Finally, policies promoting civil society participation also recognise the social economy and third sector as players in the process of drawing up and applying different public policies through their participation in consultative and participatory bodies.

A determinant aspect of TS/SE access to decision-making levels is the decentralized Spanish political and administrative structures. The 1978 Constitution set up the so-called “State of Autonomies”, dividing the country in 17 autonomous regions with their own governments, public administrations and budgets. Each region manages its own education and public health system (Pérez García et al., 2015), opening channels of access in those policy domains (Voorberg, 2015) while making it harder to establish long-term relationships on central state policy issues like employment (Chaves-Avila, 2016).

Spain was among the hardest hit by the 2008 financial crisis, reducing further public welfare

and redistribution. Fiscal discipline and austerity policies have led to a drastic reduction in public funds and the removal of certain responsibilities from local level in order to comply with fiscal discipline restrictions (Law 27/2013). This situation has worsened due to the collapse of the banks that constituted a major third sector source of financing. Consequently, half of TS/SE entities have been involved in restructuring processes and nearly a quarter of them have disappeared (Chaves- Avila, 2016). Nevertheless, the sector is still strong in the domains of health care and social services (Anheier et al., 2015), while new social emergencies and risks have also driven the increase of activities of the social third sector in poverty and exclusion domains (interventions by organisations linked to the social third sector have increased by 40% since the beginning of the financial crisis), consolidating its role in the coproduction of services with public agents (CES, 2016).

Case study 1, Spain: New Health Foundation (NHF)

The New Health Foundation was set up in 2012 by a number of health and social care sector professionals to address the increasing challenges faced by health and social care systems in palliative care. According to the foundation the economic crisis has highlighted the urgency to put in place community and family environment care to address gaps in the health and social care systems across Spain.

It offers training to public and private organizations how to develop and implement palliative care models and more efficient social and health care models. They seek to activate citizens in the care of their relatives and neighbours, and getting people to realize that they are health assets in their own communities. ‘NHF has become for public administration and regional bodies a reference in the definition of political direction and general course in this field of integrated care and palliative care models’ (Member NHF). However, they experience that slow administrative procedures and decision-making processes are hindering the implementation of projects.

Case study 3, Spain: Médicos del Mundo (MM)

Médicos del Mundo (Doctors of the World) is an international organization, which aims to work for the universal right to health care through healthcare assistance, social and political advocacy, testimony, social mobilization and political independence. In Spain, the organization serves the most vulnerable groups, such as sex workers, drug users, immigrants, homeless people, and women in prevention programs of genital mutilation. In the Basque Country, the organization has been catering to people excluded from public health services since 1995, mostly illegal immigrants.

They do not only provide assistance but also identify cases of rights violation in order to claim for their fundamental right to health service and social service access. The organisation

works with volunteers and employed technical staff. 17% of the volunteers are former users of MMs services. Collaboration with the public sectors is mostly via consultative platforms.

The Spanish Economic and Social Council (CES 2016, 2017) points out how the economic crisis has enhanced solidarity and a change in the provision of social services. The Third Sector Act 43/2015 and the Volunteering Act 45/2015, both part of the commitment set in the National Plan of Action for Social Inclusion 2013-2016, actively sought the mobilisation and participation of civil society, officially recognising the social third sector capacity as interlocutors with the public administration and its role in addressing the needs of the disadvantaged and people at risk of exclusion (Lorenzo, 2016). This national framework is complemented by regional laws, e.g. on cooperatives, foundations and volunteering (TSI, 2016b). However, despite an increase of consultation of TS/SE organisations by public administration, more than half of the participating entities (51,8%) stated that their contributions had little impact in the definition of public actions (Ruiz, 2015).

On the whole, the focus seems to be on service delivery rather than advocacy. At local level, however, well-established TS/SE actors in the fields of health or education tend to have impact on municipal policy discourse.

Case study 3, Spain: Integrated Social Services Cooperative (SSI)

SSI is an Employment Cooperative with 300 members in Bilbao providing social services and care. It was founded in 1980s in partnership with Regional Government, when many men lost their work during the financial crisis and women started working in care services without contracts or professional training. Tackling the black economy among care workers, SI started training those women, and today provides high quality care and social services for elderly, families, youth, while offering stable and prestigious jobs.

Since the beginning they had care service contracts with the city of Bilbao, and receive public and private funds through crowd funding, business-angels, donations and ethical banking. According to members, care innovations created by SSI have influenced local health policy and ‘the fact that this initiative has been driven by women (98% of the workers) as a cooperative and a strategic innovative vision, contributed to develop new values and beliefs within the home caring sector, not only among stakeholders, but also, among all society’ (member SSI). As a cooperative, SSI has been relatively crisis-resistant, despite competition for public tenders, but members criticise a lack of holistic criteria for social return in investment in the administration’s assessment practice.

Biggest challenge in austerity crisis is funding for TS/SE organisations, public procurement is still at an early stage and the application social clauses in public tenders and contracts remains scarce (Chaves-Avila, 2016). On the other hand, there are budgetary policies assigning funds for the development of the social economy to directly promote the creation of cooperatives and employment in cooperatives or indirectly through the possibility of

receiving unemployment benefits as a lump-sum if the unemployed person decides to set up or join a cooperative (Monzón, 2012) as in the case of SSI, a legal practice that is noteworthy for other countries. Otherwise, the only competitive advantage of TS/SE organisations in the tender for public contracts is their special tax status, allowing to purchase their services at a lower VAT rate.

Portugal

Other than in Spain for a long time the dominant notion in Portugal has been that of third sector rather than social economy, even though the public identification of organisations with solidarity is strong. It enfoldes a wide range of organisations that provide services supplementary to the public sector in the fields of health, education, and social welfare. TS/SE organisations also support individuals, address community needs and participate in political advocacy and interest representation (Franco, 2005; EC, 2014) in a public welfare environment that is generally characterised as insufficient due to political instability and a lack of resources (Ferreira, 2015).

The sector has been described as fragmented and in diverse and imbalance connections with the State. Non-profit organizations are often referred to as Private Institutions of Social Solidarity (IPSS) and represent around 9% of the total number of organizations and 63,4% of the whole employment in the sector. The Social Economy model covers organizational forms as cooperatives, associations, mutuels and foundations, not constrained in activity areas and defined as private, self-governed, voluntary, democratic and not-for-profit (ibid.).

Generally, the sector is marked by the country's Roman Catholic heritage; the long tradition of mutuality and self-help; third, the long history of authoritarian political control; the recent democratic transition, which has led to a growing prominence of non-profit groups. The 1976 Portuguese constitution defines the cooperative sector as different from the public and private sector. An amendment in 1989 introduced the concept of social cooperatives to comprise the communitarian and self-management organizational segments. Another amendment was introduced in 1997 to include non-profit legal institutions targeting social solidarity with a special reference to mutuels. The Portuguese social solidarity co-operatives emerged as a legal form in 1997, to attend to the integration of vulnerable groups (EC, 2014).

The legal form of Private Institutions of Social Solidarity (IPSS) dates back to 1979, benefiting from the structuring of a modern welfare state. They are granted cooperation agreements with public welfare institutions in the fields of family and youth support, elderly care, supporting people with disabilities and the poor, and in education, health and housing. They are represented by three national confederations that negotiate the biannual cooperation agreements signed with the government which defines agreements with government, funding and regulatory dimensions (Ferreira, 2015). Those national non-profit confederations exercise a substantial amount of power in the intermediation with frontline

organizations and thus dominate the advocacy field.

Case study 1, Portugal: Saúde Porta-a-Porta (SPAP)

Saúde Porta-a-Porta (Door-to-door health) is a well-established volunteer project by currently 50 medical university students that started in 2013, developed by the Students Association of NOVA Medical School in Lisbon, in partnership with the City Council of Lisbon, parish councils and a private hospital. It provides health services mostly to the elderly, allowing students to practice their skills while addressing gaps in accessing basic health care, social isolation, loneliness and depression.

Patients visited must be at least over 65 years of age, suffer from chronic disease, and live off less than €475 a month. Those people receive home-visits by 2 students every week. They are supervised by the hospital and parish council coordination teams, thus complementing the training of students in geriatric medicine while ensuring appropriate treatment, a critical factor of success of the initiative based on reciprocity. The project is funded by the Medical School. One success factor of the project is good communication between partners, ensuring tailor-made strategies for each individual with a focus on equality and inclusion. Students commit to volunteer for at least one year and receive a participation certificate.

The 2013 social economy satellite account, which included both TS and SE organisations, shows the sector as a major economic force, making up about 2.8% of national GDP, 5.2% of total employment and 6.0% of paid employment. Approximately 61 thousand entities were identified within the scope of the Social Economy Satellite Account (SESA), distributed through a wide set of activities, of which social action and security represented 15.6%. By groups of entities, associations with altruistic goals were the most relevant group (93.4%), employing 62.2% of the sector's work force (INE, 2016).

Depending on the government in power public welfare was either limited, filling the gaps with charity, or regulated by the state with broad TS/SE involvement. During the 1990s the welfare state saw a transition towards public governance and social investment (Ferreira, 2015), making the third sector a partner in co-governance in welfare. To make the transition formal, a Cooperation Pact for Social Solidarity was signed in 1996 between national and local governmental structures and IPSS federative bodies. However, instead of widespread innovation the results have only been short-term agreements of collaboration. The economic crises has triggered a renewed effort to make the TS/SE sector less dependent on public contracts and to foster its size and professionalization through a social economy framework.

Case study 2, Portugal: People's Kitchen of Mouraria (CPM)

People's Kitchen of Mouraria is a project by non-profit organisation Associação Cozinha

Popular da Mouraria (ACPM), launched in 2012 to offer a place for learning, experimentation and sharing to the people of Mouraria, a neighbourhood in downtown Lisbon. A community kitchen, it invites people of all cultures and generations to prepare and share healthy, affordable meals, to engage in leisure activities or community gardening across the neighbourhood. There are cooking workshops and young people can train in the kitchen. The kitchen is mostly run by volunteers, the few staff members are formerly long-term unemployed, former prisoners and immigrants.

The project was initially funded by a City Council programme that seeks to promote partnerships in deprived areas with high levels of immigration and unemployment. Today CPM earns income from set dinners, workshops and rental fees and is in the process of restructuring as a social business.

A 2010 Resolution of the Council of Ministers (16/2010) started the first governmental programme (PADES) for the development of the social sector, such as the setting up of new SE umbrella bodies, a placement programme for young people in TS organizations, a subsidized credit programme, support to management and training, and the development of a satellite account for the social economy. SE is meant to act as a welfare bridge to move from dependency on the social system to self-sufficiency. This development is driven by public body CASES (Cooperativa António Sérgio para a Economia Social), bringing together TS/E umbrella and state representatives, but with decision-making power resting largely with the state (Ferreira, 2015). The National Council for the Social economy (CNES) consults government agencies on policy development and is expected to stimulate competitiveness, innovation, social entrepreneurship and ‘internationalization of the Portuguese economy’ (Pires, 2013).

A 2013 Portuguese Law on Social Economy strengthens TS/SE organisation’s independence and autonomy from public authorities, reinforces the co-operative principle in the planning and development of public social systems, and guarantees independence and democratic control of organisations in an attempt to strengthen the economic and financial self-sustainability of the sector (Meira, 2014), breaking with the historical institutional approach of the axis third sector – welfare state towards the driving force third sector – economy (Ferreira, 2015). For this purpose government and Gulbenkian Foundation have launched social investment initiatives, supported by ESF funding. Until now TS organisations have been relying heavily on public funds, constraining the sector activities due to limited resources of the Portuguese State, leading to intense competition for public funding and increased bureaucratic requirements of partnership contracts (Costa & Parente, 2013). Support for social enterprises is missing in legal frameworks (European Commission, 2014) but a discourse on the meaning of the concept is ongoing (CIRIEC, 2017).

Nevertheless, focus group participants describe a generally positive evolution of participatory mechanisms and crosscutting interactions between public and social sectors in Portugal, favoured by preferential tax treatment and social clauses in public procurement.

They observe more transparent as well as more structured collaborative relationships. The state emerges as the driver of the professionalization of associations, with the aim to strengthen their business management skills and networking within the sector, which is still weak (Focus group Portugal).

Case study 3, Portugal: Emergency Shelters for Women Victims of Domestic Violence

The project of Emergency Shelters for Women Victim of Domestic Violence is part of the mission of the Portuguese Red Cross (PRC), established in 203 to help women and their children in situations of domestic violence. The main objective is to assure temporary housing structures that work as a safe place, filling a needs gap in innovative ways. A support team of professionals assesses each individual situation, informs them about process and proceedings, evaluate risk and risk perception, and examine the possibility of a referral to a shelter house. The aim is to emotionally stabilize and empower women and children who have become victims of domestic violence. The tool is to give all the information needed to enable women to make conscious, informed and autonomous decisions, in safe environment and free from external pressure. Women can stay up to 15 days.

PRC operates three shelters with 116 beds. In 2017 a total of 320 women stayed in emergency housing. Initial funding came from the EU. Emergency housing responses are a public service provided by law. The State has outsourced about 90% of this service offers to non-profit associations and collaborates with TS/SE on policy design.

Anglo-Saxon model

A liberal market economy, the UK has gone from poster boy of third sector collaboration and deliberation rhetoric during the Labour government to ‘workfare’ and ‘big society’, by ‘opening up the public services to market forces and letting the market fall where it will. While the government present this as an opportunity, the great bulk of public service contracts have been captured by large commercial organisations, leaving the third sector at the margins’ (Mohan, 2016:31). In addition to that, the charity and non-profit sector, dominant organisational forms in the TS/SE landscape, are coming under increasing scrutiny and control for fundraising.

A formal definition of the third sector was only established in the 1990s, uniting voluntary and community organisations, social enterprises, mutuals and cooperatives under this label. They are mostly engaged in service provision, culture and recreation. According to the estimates of the NCVO, there were about 387,000 ‘civil society organisations’ (CSOs), of which 42% (163,000) are voluntary organisations (‘general charities’) in 2013/14 (NCVO, 2016). Several umbrella organisations are representing TS/SE organisations in England and Scotland. In Scotland, 45,000 TSOs were counted for the same period, of which 53% were registered charities (SCVO website), generating half of their income from local authorities

(SCVO, 2014) and public funds. In 2013/14, TSOs income accounted to £43.8bn, three-quarters of which was generated from contracts and grants from the public sector (34%), as well as from donations and earned income from the public (44%), mostly by large TSOs, leaving small organisations with an annual income below £100,000 in more vulnerable financial situations (NVCO, 2016). 2.7% of the UK work force are employed by TS/SE organisations.

TSOs have always worked in welfare provision, over time changing from alternative to complementary and supplementary provision to collaborative partnerships with the state (Alcock et al., 2012), a development appreciated and supported by TS umbrella organisations through an independent Commission, building on the national Compact (renewed in 2010) - a voluntary code to govern relations between the government and the ‘third sector’ for mutual benefit, to join-up the government policies on the third sector and to draw the latter into the government’s policy agenda (Alcock, 2009). A number of key policy documents were further developed by the Home Office (2003; 2004), HM Treasury and the Cabinet Office, which culminated in the establishment of the Office of the Third Sector (OTS) within the Cabinet Office in 2006 with its own Minister. In 2010, it was re-named to Office for Civil Society. Since 2006, a large body of legislation, including in particular the Charities Act (2006, 2011), has been developed to clarify regulations on how to set up as a charity and the prerequisites to qualification for charitable status, followed by the 2016 Charities (Protection and Social investment) Act 2016 - to strengthen the Charity Commission protective powers.

Since 2002, central government has issued loans rather than grants with the aim to build the sector’s financial and strategic capacity, and organisations have moved from relying on grants to service contracts. The New Labour Government invested substantially in the third sector’s capacity for public service delivery, but smaller organisations criticized the fact that they were rarely able to compete for bigger contracts and that they could rarely make their voices heard (Taylor & Warburton, 2003). The sector ‘has taken on a growing share of services previously delivered through statutory agencies’, including in SOLIDUS policy fields employment, education, health and housing (Alcock, 2010). The Big Society agenda, however, saw third sector programmes and budget reduced from the total £227million to spend on the sector in 2009/10 to only £56 million in 2014/15, which accounted to almost 75% reduction (Third Sector, 2016). In 2015, the Civil Exchange published the final report of three-year ‘auditing’ the performance of the Big Society initiative since 2010 that aimed to unlock the potential within society beyond the state and the markets.

In general, contracts for public service delivery have not been, as they should be, ‘co-designed’ through dialogue among commissioners, suppliers, beneficiaries and service users. They have become pre-determined commissioners’ contracts (Select Committee on Charities, 2017) in which TSOs are used merely as ‘project delivery agencies’ (Civil Exchange, 2014). Furthermore, such contracting of public services has rarely embraced a more holistic support required by the third sector beneficiaries, i.e. been designed around a set of the

beneficiaries’ needs, or what TSOs defines as ‘whole systems commissioning’ (Select Committee on Charities, 2017).

The situation is slightly different in Scotland. Scotland has its Scottish Compact (introduced in 1998 and renewed in 2003). Third sector policy has largely adopted a local approach, supporting cooperation between the third sector and local government and utilizing the sector’s capacity in promoting community development and active citizenship, i.e. through the co-developed 2009 Community Empowerment Action Plan to encourage local people in identifying ‘creative and successful solutions to local problems’ through locally owned, community led organisations acting as ‘anchors’ (Scottish Government, 2009). Since 2007, Scotland has also had a strong policy to support social enterprises (Scottish Government, 2016), including a holistic programme of support.

Case Study 1, Scotland: Positive Prison-Positive Futures

Positive Prison (PPPF) is a charitable organisation founded in 2012 with the aim ‘to improve the effectiveness of Scotland’s criminal justice system so as to reduce the harms caused by crime and to support the reintegration of those who are or have been subject to punishment’ (PPPF website). It offers mentoring and support for inmates and people recently released to ensure they are treated as citizens and gain access to services like housing and health care and seek to facilitate employment. The organisation works with volunteers, mostly ex-prisoners themselves, and employs a few staff members.

The founding of the charity was facilitated by a concurrent Scottish Government Review of the Reducing Reoffending Policy, which resulted in top-down interest in an organisation that can bring together ex-prisoners with policy advisors from the justice department, academics and criminal justice practitioners. ‘Positive Prison came along just at the right moment for Scottish Government. It’s founding was done in partnership with Scottish Government. So in a sense that makes it unusual as a charity too’ (Trustee PPPF).

Case study 2, Scotland: Health and Social Care Alliance Scotland

The Health and Social Care Alliance (The ALLIANCE) was established in 2006 to support people with long term health conditions through the provision of information and ensuring that their views were taken into account in the development of health and social care services. It is a Scotland wide third sector intermediary for health and social care organisations, and now has over 60 staff. It has grown over the past decade to incorporate over 2,100 members in Scotland who include: individuals living with a long term condition; voluntary organisations of all sizes working in the health and social care sector; and representatives of public service organisations. They consult the Scottish Government on health and social care policy and work with local-level public and third sector providers in the development of policy and practice including approaches such as

self-management, co-production and self-directed support.

Case study 3, Scotland: Glasgow Homelessness Network

Glasgow Homelessness Network (GHN) was established in 1980 and is a third sector membership organisation that involves people with experience of homelessness in projects and research, in order to improve public and third sector homelessness services. They connect the knowledge and experiences of people who both live and work with the issue to address poor housing, homelessness and poverty, based on the insight that just providing homeless people with a flat does not solve the issue. GHN has had a key role in supporting the development of a major new initiative called ‘Glasgow Alliance to End Homelessness’. This has brought to get her service users with experience of homelessness, Glasgow Local Authority, and the key third sector homelessness providers in Glasgow with a 10-year funding commitment. At national level, GHN participates in the Scottish Government’s Homelessness and Rough Sleeping Action Group that’s recently been established with new funding.

The post-communist model

Throughout the 20th Slovakia has gone through a number of regime changes, like the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Czechoslovak First Republic, the Slovak Fascist State, the Czechoslovak Republic 1945–1948, Communist Czechoslovakia, Czechoslovakia after the Warsaw Pact Occupation in 1968, Federal Socialist Czechoslovakia, and Federal Democratic Czechoslovakia, going through numerous political systems, including a parliamentary democracy, a fascist regime, Stalinism, “normalization”, socialism, and the post-communist return to democracy. The current Slovak Republic formed in 1993. NGOs and civil societies were always present (Vaceková & Murray Svidroňová, 2016), but gained new channels of collaboration through structural reforms after 1990 that gradually gave municipalities and newly established regional governments more responsibility on issues like social protection, education, culture, health care, etc.

Case study 1, Slovakia: Teach for Slovakia

Teach for Slovakia is a programme run by a Slovak NGO since 2014, implementing a programme that runs in 30 countries around the world. The goal is to improve the quality of education and to reduce inequalities in access to education, i.e. for Roma children. The NGO actively seeks university students who are willing to give two years of their lives for teaching at primary school level. They receive two years of intensive training and a salary, hoping that some of them will stay teachers and become leaders in educational reform.

The NGO initiated the implementation of the programme in Slovakia, supported by Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport. The initiative is financed through state subsidies, regional government subsidies, grants from towns and municipalities, donations from individuals and companies, and grants from foundations. As this is a fairly new initiative it is difficult to assess their effect on pupils but the students who participate do so consciously with a social change agenda. ‘I participate in TfS because I want to achieve some social change, I want to help those kids, little by little change the way how the education system is now. I am not in for the money’ (Teacher TfS).

There are about 60.000 registered non-profit organisations in Slovakia today. Organisational forms falling under TS/SE are associations (which constitute about 90% of the sector), foundations, non-investment funds, organisations providing public benefit services, and social enterprises, mostly in the field of employment. The first civic and volunteer organisations were linked to the church (Kuvíková in Zimmer et al., 2004).

In 1997, the Act on Foundations was adopted, which limited the independence of civic activities; as a result, 1800 Slovak foundations were closed. After the 1998 elections, a new coalition established favourable legal and economic conditions for the further development of the sector (Kuvíková & Svidroňová, 2010) and for collaboration with the public sector: TS organisations got the same right as other organisations to deliver public services, i.e. in the field of education, where today schools are owned and run by non-profit organisations, or in the area of housing (Murray Svidroňová, 2017).

Case study 2, Slovakia: ETP Slovakia

ETP Slovakia – Centre for Sustainable Development was founded 1992. It works with disadvantaged communities across Slovakia, supporting and assisting deprived and marginalized groups, predominantly Roma, providing comprehensive services and support in order to improve their social and economic situation. ETP promotes employment opportunities, operates community centres established in partnerships with local municipalities, provides education & training, helps poor families to secure and improve their housing conditions and teaches them how to save and manage their finances, thus providing services for all members of families.

Building on and learning from ETP’s experience and practice, the Slovak Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family as well as the Slovak Ministry of Interior – Office of the Plenipotentiary for Roma Communities are currently implementing two national projects. On top of that the Slovak Ministry of Interior is currently developing a social transitional housing programme based on ETP’s Building Hope model of self-help construction in the village of Rankovce, where in cooperation with local self-government, local field social workers, local non-profit organisations established by the Evangelical Church, the Labour Office and other

partners, ETP helped 16 families to build houses, using ETP's Savings & Micro-Loan Programme.

National government started consulting NGOs in public policy process in 2001. Another crucial reform was the introduction of a first 1% and now 2% tax assignment to TS organisations, while own revenues of TS organisations are not subject of income tax. Property tax does not always apply. The definition of social enterprise was introduced to Slovak legislation in 2008 through the amendment of the 5/2004 employment act, referring to entities that reinvest at least 30% of their income generated to create new jobs for disadvantaged people or improve existing ones (Murray Svidroňová, 2017).

Case study 3, Slovakia: Deaf Kebab

Deaf Kebab" is a social enterprise started in 2012 at the initiative of the Šarina brothers, one of whom is deaf. The goal is to provide employment in kiosks selling fast food for people with hearing problems. By now, the SE runs kiosks in 13 municipalities located mainly in central Slovakia, employing 15 people with hearing impairment, who sell the food, engage in management and logistics. Customers can communicate with them via special sign language tables. The SE also runs a special support programme for employees with hearing impairment to help them find employment outside the project.

They receive financial support from the Local Labour Office, Social Affairs and Family (LLOSAF) and from municipalities who let the local premises, who see this as part of their employment programme. 'They achieve social inclusion naturally, in a 'non-violent way'. This is something that cannot be done from the public sector, top-down. It must come bottom up' (public sector representative). The initiative is too small to be recognised by national ministries who could promote the model. 'Small business people with good ideas are like the Fellowship of the Ring and the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family is Mordor ... It's a tool for funding political friends and politically related entrepreneurs' (founder).

SE organisations can operate under any type of legal form. Another form of work integration SE is protected workshops for people with disabilities. Municipalities can create social companies to employ long-term unemployed citizens to help them acquire basic skills and work experience, a response introduced in 2010 by the Government and the Association of Towns and Municipalities to the effects of the global economic crisis in Slovakia as austerity measures translated into declining investments in social protection and the government started to emphasize the role of civil society (Murray Svidroňová, 2017).

The 2012 government wanted to create a post for a government representative for national minorities and civil society. The non-profit sector did not agree with this proposal, wishing to maintain an independent representative for civil society, an issue that remains unresolved. The 2014-2020 strategy of Civil Society Development in Slovakia offers basic arguments

promoting the support for civil society and cooperation between State and non-governmental, non-profit organisations, triggering more participation of professional and sectorial organizations in legislative processes. Public support for charity, donations and volunteering is increasing. Currently, more than a quarter of citizens are engaged in the formal volunteering (ibid.).

Self-regional governments or municipalities can run local public enterprises, bringing together local companies to support local employment. This possibility goes back to the 1990 creation of self-governing structures, constituting local territorial and legal authorities with their own budgets. Municipalities may take decisions independently and act in all matters pertinent to the administration of the municipality and its property, if a special law does not assign such acts to the State or to other legal bodies or natural persons. This opened up scope for collaboration via service contracts or in policy formulation, depending on local context (ibid.).

On the downside, financial support from national state level for TS/SE organisations remains low, input to national legislation remains weak, Roma voices are missing, making the Slovak TS/SE sector collaboration with public agencies a mostly regional and local affair and thus similar to many other European countries.

3.2. Three dimensions of solidarity action in SOLIDUS evidence: social, democratic and economic

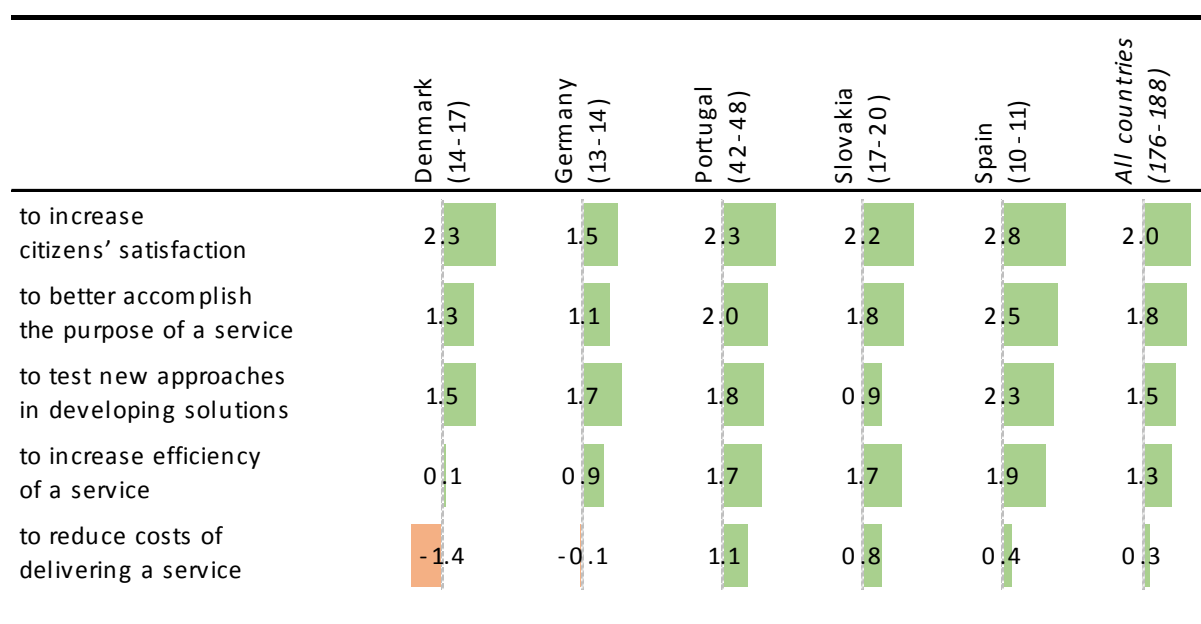
This chapter contains the main findings of the cross-country comparative analysis of organisations collaborating with public institutions in different policy fields, looking at the democratic, economic and social contributions they generate. The democratic dimension reflects on internal decision-making and external input to policy-making and service design through collaborative partnerships. The economic dimension reflects on the role of different sources of income, and the effects of redistribution, reciprocity and sometimes market activity, and different or converging understandings of economic action.

The social dimension links to inclusion at individual level, and to the effects of solidarity action on community level, thus combining different perspectives to a holistic view on the impact of collaboration between public administration and TS/SE towards social solidarity and increased autonomy of disadvantaged groups and communities linked to reciprocity, which ranges from increasing a sense of self-worth and self-efficiency, finding friends or being valued as a member of community to becoming a volunteer oneself, producing goods and services for sale at market value as co-owner or co-producer, or moving on to a paid position with a salary subject to VAT.

TS/SE organisations often operate at local level, with a specific target group, but across policy fields. Local municipalities are often legally obliged to support the same target groups,

within social policy frameworks formulated at different administrative levels. In certain policy areas the local level has limited decision-making power, depending on the organization of public administration in a country. Decision-making power in the fields of labour market activation and education usually rests at national or regional/ federal level. Health, social care and housing tend to be more locally anchored, partly due to policy turns towards more citizen engagement in public services, which theoretically promote the democratic participation of service users and facilitate bottom-up service innovation (see Graph 2).

Graph 2: Goals of collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

This chapter is broadly divided in the policy areas housing, employment, health and education. Despite the more holistic approach to well-being pursued by a number of organisations, we have nevertheless tried to categorise them either by their main focus of activity or by concentrating on one of their programmes. USE in Berlin, for instance, sees its main mission as integrating people with mental health problems into work arrangements that give them a meaningful daily structure and additional income on top of their pension or basic unemployment payments. They provide rehabilitation, training and employment in protected workshops where they can work according to their abilities and interests, with constant access to social workers, and clearly defined participatory structures. Although USE's focus is work it overlaps with the policy field health and social provision, as individual development is discussed with the psychiatric experts located within the social administrations of the districts. Nevertheless we opted to discuss USE under employment due the organisation's predominant self-identification with this field.

The policy field of housing

One important contribution to democratic solidarity is to enable people to live independently. Even if the rent is still paid by public institutions, having a decent place own place to live is not only a fundamental right (OHCHR 2009: 25), it can also be the spring board for social and economic integration in society.

Only a few case studies carried out for WP5 touch on the policy field of housing, as it is a difficult challenge to tackle for TS/SE organisations with limited funds, often operating in urban areas with ever more expensive housing markets. *Kontaktstelle Wohnen* in the German city of Leipzig helps refugees to move from asylum seeker reception centres into their own flats. The Glasgow Homelessness Network (GHN) in Scotland both supports homeless people, based on research and recommendations developed with people affected, and lobbies for more supportive policies. ETP Slovakia offers encompassing support services for marginalized groups across Slovakia, mostly Roma. In the field of housing they helped 16 families to build their own homes in the village of Rankovce, bringing together a large local coalition including the local administration. The Portuguese Red Cross (RCP) Emergency Shelters for women who are victims of domestic violence are only temporary, but can be a crucial first step towards leaving an abusive relationship. ‘It is known that the social intervention that is done in the first days is fundamental for the course of the process. In the first complaints of domestic violence, a return to the abusive situation is frequent, and the lack of follow-up from the outset in these first moments increases the likelihood of a return to the abusive situation/home’ (Psychologist RCP). Emergency shelters in Portugal are almost always outsourced to TS/SE organisations, that state mostly functions as a regulator that invites organisations to co-design legislation in the field with the Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality – CIG (Staff CIG).

All organisations underline how important decent housing is to succeed in other areas of life. ‘I told them, you know that you can forget about your educational programme as long as you don’t win the housing game. If more and more people on social benefits end up moving to Grünau, Paunsdorf or Neustadt-Neuschönefeld (areas with large housing estates) it is obvious what will happen in terms of education, you won’t be able to balance that’ (Board member, Kontaktstelle). In Rankovce, several of the men involved in building homes for their families have moved on to regular employment.

All organisations are non-profit associations that use mostly public and private funds and local volunteers. ETP gives out interest free micro-loans (of up to €8,000) to carefully selected families who have been participating in the organisation’s specially designed educational, savings, financial literacy and self-motivational training activities, thus requiring active participation of their target group. ‘The programme supports democratic solidarity as it includes the participating families as co-creators of the housing and thus a feeling of ownership is ensured’ (staff member ETP). The personal involvement of Roma beneficiaries

also increases acceptance among mainstream villagers, thus contributing to a more inclusive local community. ‘Our cooperation with ETP Slovakia has been built from the beginning on the principle of partnership and equal co-operation. As mentioned above, self-help construction frees up the budget of the municipality, it is a win-win situation’ (Mayor, Rankovce).

ETP’s participatory approach to social inclusion, in which housing constitutes one element, is echoed by GHN in Scotland: ‘A lot of our projects depend upon a particular type of expertise...of people who have experience of homelessness and/or would describe themselves as experiencing poverty. And that’s a skill and insight that we want to harness, so it’s about bringing that into the core of what we do... and a lot of the very specifics of what we do, we simply couldn’t do without it’ (staff GHN). Results of drawing on this expertise are the ‘Keys to Learn’ project developing the skills of individuals who have recently been homeless on sustaining a tenancy and the ‘Navigate’ advocacy project that matches unpaid volunteers to help people who are currently homeless to ‘work through their housing problems and find their way through the maze of welfare benefits’ (GHN 2017b).

While ETP co-produces actual housing together with members of their target group, *Kontakstelle* and GHN act more as intermediaries. The German initiative was originally using a lot of volunteers, recruited through personal, professional and political networks, before professionalising due to a changing housing market context that has become more difficult to penetrate. There is a strong sense of necessary leadership and strategic thinking to get the ball rolling, which includes a willingness to tackle challenges, especially in a context of acting as intermediary between a group subject to discrimination in the housing market and a public administration that needs the support of TS/SE organisations due to the crisis character of refugee integration on the one hand and that still regards this responsibility of the public sector.

The policy field of employment

The nature of collaboration with the public sector on the field of employment depends on institutional context. While protected work integration enterprises (WISEs) for people with disabilities are well established in countries like Spain, Germany or Denmark, SEs promoting employment for other groups in Germany and generally in Slovakia have to be creative and network at local and regional level to get their project off the ground. In Spain, budgetary policies assigning funds for the development of the social economy support the creation of cooperatives and employment in cooperatives, i.e. by paying unemployment benefits as a lump-sum to allow people to first become members and then employees of cooperatives like SSI in Bilbao.

Protected workshops like USE for people with mental illness in Berlin have a long tradition in Germany, they are among the few officially supported hybrid organisations in a context

otherwise characterised by social market economy principles with several pillars of subsidiary welfare provision. Social entrepreneurship is still at the margins of policy discourse, with cautious developments towards social business models in labour activation (i.e. MUG). Supportive legislation is still in the making (the State of Brandenburg just issued a Directive to support social businesses working with long-term unemployed people), and in the case of Brandenburg relies on ESF funding. Similarly, Deaf Kebab in Slovakia is a small SE employing 13 people with hearing impairments, the only institutional connections they have at this point is with the Local Office for Labour, Social Affairs and Family.

Denmark on the other hand has launched numerous support programmes for social enterprises, and municipalities have been reaching out and inviting organisations to take over businesses to support their mission, i.e. in the case of Grennesminde, where the municipality of Taastrup actively sought a SE for a café, then co-designed the modalities. However, there is a sense of dependence on the goodwill of municipalities: ‘We are extremely dependent on good collaborations with the municipalities. We talk a lot about partnerships. Of course, we have inputs from our experience and expertise, but in order for us to succeed, we experience that partnerships are important’ (CEO Grennesminde).

This dependency on goodwill is very much reflected in statements by the CEO of USE, where the relationship between social organisations and public administration has been under a stress test following a financial scandal that involved the CEO of a homeless organisation and public money ending up in his pockets. This general climate of lack of trust resulted in strict administrative rules concerning public funding, which triggered a strive for more independence through market-based income, which is already at 50% (CEO USE).

Collaboration with the public sector in this field is first of all about building trust: MUG’s director is a long-standing player in work integration in the region and he is engaged in multiple networks. Long-standing collaboration with the local job centre ensured its support to start a social enterprise in addition to offering traditional work activation measures. USE’s directors participate in every round-table and consultative forum possible. Grennesminde is very patient and seeks to accommodate the various different needs and expectations of the municipalities they work with.

Generally valid for WISEs is the high dependence on public instruments that support the social aspect of the enterprise, namely the various funding schemes that subsidize the employees and professionals like trainers and social pedagogue and the contracts with pension funds, job agencies or municipal social service departments to train and prepare vulnerable people for employment. In the case of MUG they benefit from a provision in social legislation that allows job centres to pay employers up to 75% of a person’s salary for up to 24 months. ‘Those two functions are systemic, we need them publicly funded. The rest we earn ourselves’ (CEO MUG). SSI depends on service contracts with Bilbao city and regional authorities.

Employment-oriented organisations are often hybrids that sell services to job centres to activate and support vulnerable groups who struggle to find regular training or employment for various reasons. MUG in a rural part of Germany with high unemployment employ men who have been out of work for several years. Grennesminde in Denmark works with young people with learning or cognitive disorders. Both SEs sell goods on the markets, where their social mission is mostly irrelevant. ‘When we are selling goods to a customer, they evaluate us on the product’ (CEO Grennesminde). The same is true for USE, where mentally ill people work in 30 different professions and services.

All cases in the field of employment also focus on training and education, helping people to obtain professional training. SSI in Spain, the employment cooperative that offers several services in care, provides high-level professional education for its members. SEs also develop people’s social skills through regular meetings with social workers, social pedagogues or staff members, or through regular contact with customers. Successfully getting someone through training and ready for employment in the first labour market not only affects the autonomy of individuals themselves, but also of the people around them, the families, who have worried about the future of their children or who have also been emotionally, economically and socially affected by unemployment of their partners or relatives. When SSI started back in the 1980s it saved families by giving official employment in the care sector to women whose husbands lost their work in recession.

Finally, not all WISEs have high numbers of people transferring into regular employment. However, by providing protected or regular employment themselves through market-based activities they tend to pay more into social security systems than they take out (BAG WfbM, 2014). They provide autonomy for their target group not only in economic terms but also in the sense of being ‘normal’ by providing daily routines, colleagues with and without similar afflictions, and new skills, in accordance with their abilities and preferences. Despite the fact that many SEs have company-like hierarchical structures, they tend to make the voices of staff-members, volunteers or end-users heard through regular meetings or internal consultation processes.

The policy field of health

In some countries like Spain and Denmark health care is decentralized and responsibility of regions and municipalities (Denmark) or the autonomous state (Spain). This makes access to decision-makers and collaboration easier and allows TS/SE organisations to provide more patient-centred care. In Portugal, TS/SE traditionally collaborate with public institutions in this field. Organisations also act as intermediaries between citizens and policy-makers, advocating for different services or support for patients and their families. Organisations studied for SOLIDUS broadly working in this field are non-profits Cycling Without Age (CWA) in Denmark), SSI and Médicos del Mundo (MM) in Spain, the New Health Foundation (NHF),

also in Spain, Door-to-door Health (SPAP) in Portugal, the Scottish Advocacy and Service organisations Positive Prison-Positive Futures (PPPF) and the ALLIANCE network.

CWA sees well-being and health of the elderly promoted through being part of a community. ‘We want to push the way we think of communities across generations, the way elderly people live in care homes, and the way we structure the elderly sector. It is not going to happen overnight, but if we can be a part of changing this from the present, which is very much relational welfare where the focus is on relations, love and care, physical presence—it is all the things that we have committed to’ (Founder CWA). The volunteer bike pilots are citizens and relatives, and despite the growth of CWA across Denmark and 38 other countries in the world, decision-making remains with local level chapters which find the volunteers and deal with municipalities who other than usual hold a membership contract with them. CWA’s board members include people with organizational capacity building experience, good networks and fundraising skills.

Danish Municipalities are independent in choosing their civil society partners for service-delivery, and the level of partnership vs. contract-partner varies from one location to the next. This decentralized delivery of social policy can be a challenge in terms of ownership of an initiative, but it also enables productive working relationships when the right chemistry exists between public and civic actors. ‘At some levels, we work well together, other places we are challenging them, and other places we have a form of collaboration that is a form of financing in our work’ (Founder CWA).

In Spain, TS/SE organisations have been important actors to address a crisis of care due to financial austerity, i.e. the New Health Foundation (NHF) that seeks to promote more family-driven models in the field of palliative care, filling a void left by the state system. In 2012, palliative care facilities in Spain were 50% below the recommended level, with many inter-regional differences. MM caters to the needs of refugee and immigrants who have no access to health care and lobby on their behalf to get them access. Using volunteers from the same ethnic background as their target groups helps them to approach people and communities. SSI has been providing high quality home care in Bilbao for more than 30 years now, albeit with public contracts.

Several cases in the field of health operate with the help of multiple economic factors, mostly redistribution of public and foundation money, and reciprocity through volunteering, membership fees, and occasional private donations. Volunteers play a vital role in the majority of WP5 case study organisations. This reliance on volunteers is problematic, as people tend not to turn out to volunteer for the municipality but for the cause, according to availability and level of commitment. CWA experiences a tendencies of municipalities to attempt to appropriate their service, possibly due to the traditional top-down service provision that no longer works in times of citizen participation policies and reduced public spending.

SPAP in Lisbon has clear volunteering agreements with medical students, who do weekly house-visits to elderly, poor and chronically ill patients. After at least one year they receive a participation certificate, which is an incentive to stay involved. Market-based income does not seem to be a source of income of organisations working in this field, as health care is one of the core welfare functions of the state, secured through state health systems or health insurance schemes. In 2015, SPAP won a privately sponsored Solidarity Price, and the Lisbon City Council recommends partners in the network for additional sources of funding (Councillor Lisbon).

The social impact on citizens is usually tremendous, independent of institutional settings and contexts, as it is the human contact that counts. ‘One of the most relevant achievements corresponds to the positive effect on the satisfaction of family and caregivers, as they feel safe and supported by the whole team of professionals in the field of palliative care, as well as a network of people in the community that understand the philosophy and recognized the importance of the community in the care of these people’ (Member NHF). If it is getting old people out of their care homes for a bike ride, supporting and training relatives how to deal with having to support a sick family member, or coming round to visit elderly people in their homes, all those activities are acts of a democratic solidarity given on a voluntary basis, not free from self-interest, but essentially a community-based complementary service to public health care that makes the small but important difference. In the case of SPAP the volunteers visiting the elderly bring actual medical qualification, supervised by a network of doctors, social workers and psychologists, making sure patients adhere to medical therapies, sometimes reversing the health risks of poverty, social isolation, loneliness and depression. However, recruiting enough volunteers for growing demand is a challenge (former coordinator SPAP).

Internal democracy differs significantly, partly depending on the organizational form, ranging from local chapter decision-making in CWA to vertical decision-making structures in NHF. Voices of users of all organisations are usually taken into account through evaluations and consultations, sometimes even outside the organisation as in the case of PPPF, who advise the Scottish judicial administration and policy makers of the transition from prison to life outside, with the aim to prevent re-offending through adequate support. ‘PPPF have given me opportunities to get there and have a voice. They’ve encouraged me and....just recently 2 or 3 months ago there I was invited to Parliament through PPPF to use my voice about healthcare in prisons’ (User PPPF). Apart from policy advice the organisation also offers mentoring schemes for ex-inmate, mostly done by former prisoners themselves.

Collaboration between public agencies and non-profit foundations or entities in the field of health presents an opportunity in the promotion of a more democratic policy-making by detecting new needs and demands through communication channels opened by TS/SE organisations. Médicos del Mundo in Spain i.e. has been able to increase social awareness of

the implication on communities excluded from public health services. It also alleviates austerity measures, as TS/SE organisations are often skilled in pooling resources from a wide range of actors: while health care remains a fiscal responsibility of states, bringing in philanthropic giving and the reciprocity of volunteers provides an income-mix that guarantees that focus on the needs of patients and their families remains a central concern in health policies. Public administrations and public policy have to actively support this collaboration by being open for new actors and new ideas, while monitoring that all groups in society receive at least basic provisions of health care. This requires more than just contract competition that looks at cheapest offer rather than encompassing social return on investment. ‘Public contractors do not take into consideration expertise, quality assessment or users level of satisfaction but rely on a theoretical proposal, unverified yet, more a promise of a good service rather than the good service itself’ (Member SSI, Spain).

The policy field of education

Only few organisations focus exclusively on education. Similar to health care, education is so intertwined with responsibilities of the state that organisations tend to use education as means for another purpose, i.e. employment or improved health care services.

The only example of a purely educational initiative studied for WP5 is Teach for Slovakia (TfS), an organisation that recruits bright university students and trains them as teachers to work specifically in disadvantaged areas, often with a lot of Roma children, but essentially to the benefit of all children attending the class, thus broadening the target group. In that way TfS reminds of the Red Cross Youth homework cafés in Denmark (focus group participants and case study in WP2), who started as homework support for pupils from ethnic minorities under the auspices of the Ministry for Integration and now offer Homework Cafés for everyone who likes to attend, thus moving under the responsibility of the Ministry for Education. An essential difference between both cases is that Homework Cafés were a top down Ministry-initiated project, while Teach for Slovakia follows an internationally practices model and was brought to Slovakia by a local NGO, supported by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport and funded by public institutions at all levels.

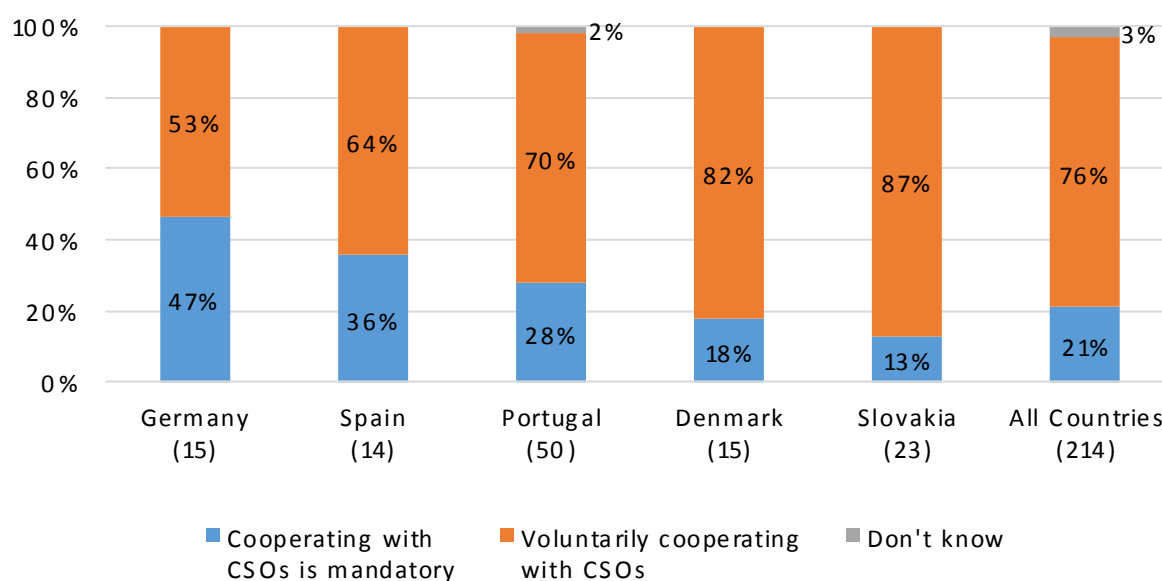
The impact on the children is hard to assess at this point, but the programme certainly alleviates pressure in schools. Young teachers experience the at least two-year commitment as important personal growth and the NGO hopes that they will become change-makers in educational policy. Similarly unclear is the impact of Danish association GAME, which offers street sports and culture in a number of municipalities in and around Copenhagen. Like TfS it targets young people from disadvantaged communities, by offering healthy leisure time activities that keep them from hanging around and that address a certain degree of segregation in organised sports clubs and associations. Mostly run by volunteers, many with migration background themselves, the organisers and supporting municipalities hope that this engagement helps young people to think more positively about themselves and their futures.

Organisations like Grennesminde, USE, Deaf Kebab or The ALLIANCE all include a training dimension with the goal of employment. More informal training opportunities for young people exist in the People's Kitchen in Lisbon's downtown Mouraria, while the main focus of the project is on integrating communities through active participation. 'When the project began, the population of the neighborhood thought it was "a soup for the poor" place. And they were against it. But over time, the kitchen has contributed to breaking the stigma and fostered inclusion among the population. And now the neighbours are the soul of the project' (Manager CPM).

4. Drivers and barriers in TS/SE collaboration with the public sector

This section gives an overview of some common drivers and barriers in collaboration experienced by TS/SE working with people and target groups who are in some way disadvantaged. Channelling solidarity takes various forms and expressions. On the one hand TS/SE organisations are channelling solidarity top-down by providing services and support on behalf of the state, which is primarily responsible for education, health care, adequate housing for all, as well as for the support of people without employment or only able to work in protected employment. Collaboration with civil society based organizations for this purpose has a long tradition in most countries. However, public-civic partnerships in old welfare states like Denmark or Germany have changed, with welfare states moving to new public management in attempts to reduce public spending, multiplied during the financial crisis. Recent UK governments implemented market-based welfare mechanisms like no other European country, while the young welfare state in Slovakia suffered from austerity politics similar to the ones in Mediterranean countries.

Graph 3: State of collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

In this climate, TS/SE organisations are also channelling economic solidarity, as they try to fill gaps left by state provision, while actively engaging their target group to re-gain autonomy in various straits of life, often through reciprocal relationships within organisations with volunteers, colleagues or clients, through public and philanthropic funding that supports people in their strives for better lives, or through active participation in the production of services or products for sale, integrating them into market-economy through solidarity actions.

The third dimension in which TS/SE organisations have the potential to channel solidarity in collaboration with institutions of the state is through their advocacy role. Being close to beneficiaries of public social policy, who are often actively consulted, they can communicate best what people's needs actually are and come up with new and creative ways of addressing them. In consultative and deliberative fora or in collaboration with open-minded municipalities organisations can test this expertise in policy experiments and innovative projects. They are also essential partners in the implementation of citizen participation policies in many countries (see chapter 3.1).

Evidence collected as part of this work package illustrates some country- or locally specific drivers and barriers, often similar across national contexts. Some supportive legislative initiatives have transfer potential, but it is mostly the barriers that need tackling at national and local levels, sometimes enshrined in institutional logics and goals of public administration, sometimes linked to lack of political will, or due to the local character of most TS/SE organisations.

Supportive legislation

A prerequisite for successful collaboration between institutions of the state and TS/SE organisations are legislative foundations for such relationships. Country-specific examples are outlined in chapter 3.1., and more details can be found in WP5 National Background reports, but a few policy initiatives that were mentioned by stakeholders during focus group and case study interviews were third sector engagement strategies like the Scottish Compact, the Danish Social Development Programmes with their turn towards active welfare, or the Spanish Act on the Promotion of the Personal Autonomy and Attention to the people in Situation of Dependency, that define organisations included in the public notion of TS/SE and underline the role of social organisations as important collaborators in welfare. In Germany, citizen engagement legislation is driven by the German Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women, and Youth, and similar policies have become the mantra of municipalities across Europe.

Cross-sectorial policies are an important step towards the facilitation of collaboration. Denmark has launched a number of cross-sectorial programmes that highlight cooperation with citizens, citizen-owned non-profit organisations and social enterprises as well as other organisations and businesses. The fact that the delivery of social policy is decentralised in many fields like health, care and housing facilitates collaborative partnerships, but they remain subject of individual effort, interest and trust, which determine who gets to work with the municipality and under what conditions, even if TS/SE partners do not receive core public funding.

In many countries TS/SE organisation complain that participation mechanisms largely depend on political will and the commitment of individuals inside public institutions, which results in big differences between municipalities, i.e. in Denmark when it comes to paying for services offered by Grennesminde, who prepare vulnerable young people for employment. USE's CEOs invited a former secretary of state to join the Board of USE's 'mother organisation' *Union Hilfswerk*, in the hope of gaining more visibility, as other welfare organisations are more frequently consulted, which partly depends on political alignments. Due to the institutional reliance on TS/SE on service delivery, organisations like SPAP in Lisbon greatly depend on political alignments. 'The action of the parish council is always somewhat limited by the political position it takes. In the final analysis, it may be a political decision not to take social action' (Parish council coordinator). Such inconsistencies and dependencies should be addressed, together with the lack of transparency when it comes to municipalities choosing TS/SE partners for collaboration. Improvements could possibly be achieved through the institutionalisation of effective spaces of collaboration with TS/SE organisation in public policies at different levels of government. National, regional or local engagement strategies must be equipped with some financial support schemes, in collaboration with ethical or cooperative banks and foundations, that allow space for lab-like policy experiments for new innovations.

Fiscal support, like special VAT or tax rules for TS/SE organisations are a prerequisite for collaborative partnerships. A noteworthy scheme is the provision in Spanish fiscal law that allows paying out unemployment benefits as a lump sum to allow people to start or join an employment cooperative. Benefitting from schemes like this are cooperatives like SSI in Bilbao, exemplifying an outstanding response to the unemployment challenge and the improvement of working conditions. Another useful provision of labour law designed to support employment in Germany is used by MUG: §16e Social Code Book II allows job centres to pay up to 75% of salaries to employers who employ people that have been out of work for a substantial period of time. A new federal directive on social businesses allows the use of ESF funds to finance professional trainers and social workers.

In countries like Germany and Slovakia, where social economy does not feature much on national political agendas, a new way of thinking is necessary also in legislative terms, as in practice many TS organisations are already hybrids, pooling resources from a variety of sectorial spheres. MUG as a small regional actor is one of many organisations and agencies that lobby for more flexibility in creating work for all and for support of social enterprises as one way forward. ‘What to do with those 2 million for whom there is no work? How about the 4 million employed below capacity? We are far away from solving the real problem and there is no political solution in sight’ (CEO MUG). Society and politics must address this concern, also in the light of rising populism in Europe due to disillusionment with politics and a widening gap between rich and poor. Instead, organisations working in the field of employment and labour activation in Germany and Denmark receive less public money when they earn income through market activities, despite the fact that such income is usually re-invested in the social mission and communities (CEO USE; focus group Denmark).

Even in times of austerity measures governments and public administration still have to deliver effective policies to help people into employment, provide health care and education, and guarantee affordable housing for all their citizens. Many TS/SE organisations across Europe demonstrate over and over again their capacity to address needs, to propose new services, to support the social inclusion of vulnerable individuals and to mobilise communities, often in participatory ways. Despite great dependency of the sector on public funds they also mobilise other resources through membership fees, donations, selling goods on the market and the commitment of volunteers and staff members alike, achieving impact that public administration cannot. This impact is also based on TS/SE expertise gained from direct interaction with the target group. Policy makers can capitalise on this expertise through consultancy. Scottish government and municipalities regularly involve TS/SE organisations on policy decision, as in the case of PPPF on reducing re-offending or of the ALLIANCE on health care. ‘I think it’s also clear to the Scottish Government that we represent a constituency that they want to engage with...that gives a certain amount of balance within the relationship’ (Manager ALLIANCE). Given the recent Scottish policy of integrating health and social care services, the ALLIANCE in its capacity of a service and advocacy organisation now supports local third sector organisations in playing a greater part in the commissioning

and governance of health and social care partnerships while advising public institutions how they can best use third sector and community resources as part of the design and delivery of health and social care services.

With growing reliance on active citizens in the delivery of social policy national governments must fill corresponding legislation with life and ensure that local administrations have the capacity to effectively collaborate with TS/SE. This includes reviewing service contracts practice, bureaucratic procedures and institutional cultures, the consistent implementation of collaborative and deliberative arenas across administrative departments and levels that promote the building of trust in transparent ways and allow an exchange of best practice. ‘There is no point running in circles with 14% unemployment. We need a network and collaborate’ (Manager Job Centre, Germany). Municipalities need funds they can use according to needs and to facilitate bottom-up innovation and strategies to alleviate territorial thinking. Public funding schemes need more flexibility, especially as organisations are becoming more hybrid, allowing returns on investment in addition to public funding, to increase organisation’s flexibility and operations and ensure encompassing and empowering service delivery.

From contract culture to deliberation

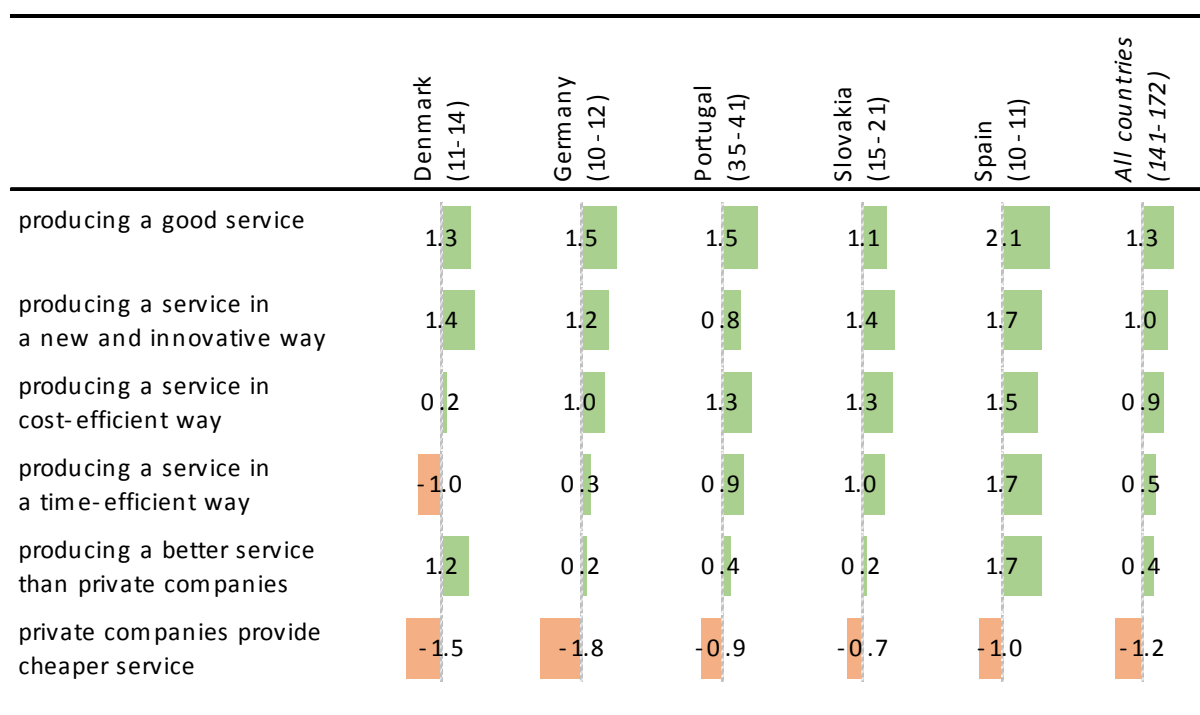
Often public funding is tied to specific goals, formulated in the contract between receiving organisation and public administration. Veteran social actors feel that there used to be more flexibility in dealing with municipalities to implement new ideas. Collaborative relationships that were described as win-win situations in the past have taken a downturn with liberalisation and service-contract culture. ‘From a municipal and jobcentre view the will to pay for employment related services is decreasing in pace with the financial crisis and a crisis of philosophy of increasing taxes as a mean to pay a more expensive welfare system’ (Focus group Denmark). Contract culture deflects from the overall impact of TS/SE in addition to delivering the service they are paid for, like strengthening communities through the mobilisation of volunteers or creating community spaces like neighbourhood centres and cultural facilities and prevents from ‘going the extra mile’ (focus group Denmark). Contracts appear to suit the risk-awareness of administrations, but they make eye-to-eye level collaboration impossible and creative solutions difficult (focus group Scotland). The TSI project concluded: ‘TSO- government relations are highly influenced by the spirit of neoliberalism, which translated into both the introduction of competitive markets for social services and instruments of new public management such as competitive tendering or contract management moving into the third sector’ (TSI Policy Brief No. 11: 2016), leaving TSOs to struggle with access to funding, bureaucracy, and the necessary professionalization of boards.

An important aspect of TS/SE organisation’s work is advocacy, drawing attention to inequalities and offering solutions to address them. This critical voice is under threat as collaborative efforts turn into contractual demand and supply relationships marked by

bureaucratic procurement procedures and market-style competition, making the financial support of municipalities ‘both a blessing and a curse’ (focus group Germany). The same is observed in the UK, where there is a general feeling that the sector has been depoliticised and co-opted to advance particular policy objectives and therefore has lost its independence (Civil Exchange, 2016 & 2017), resulting in lack of dynamism of the sector as it has become ‘obsessed...with trying to win the contracts...[with] a race to the bottom on price’ (Weakley, 2016). The UK Government’s 2014 Lobbying Act, designed to more closely regulate election campaign spending and activity by those not standing for election, is criticised to have a ‘chilling effect’ on TSOs work, ‘tying them up in expensive bureaucracy’, limiting TSOs right to campaign against harmful policies, and making TSOs’ charitable objectives more difficult to achieve (The Independent, 2015).

Policies underlining citizen engagement appear like mere PR coups on behalf of governments under such circumstances, and yet seem to be more efficient in using the sector’s expertise in policy design in other contexts, i.e. in the case of PPPF, the Scottish charity working towards health, housing and employment integration of people leaving prison. The initiative was proposed bottom-up at a time when the Scottish Government was keen to hear directly from people with convictions to reduce re-offending, which led to close collaboration in the form of consultations on issues concerning the justice system and practice or health care inside prison (CEO PPPF). Consultations have resulted in some small but at individual level crucial policy changes which have improved the transition to life outside prison, i.e. no longer releasing people on a Friday when it can be difficult to access support and housing services, or some prisons now arranging to open bank accounts prior to inmate’s release.

It is those small advancements for a small number of people that stakeholders in Denmark feel have become more difficult to achieve with a turn towards cheaper services for the many. ‘In addressing wicked problems we need to be able to produce something for the few, something for the four people who fall between two chairs and that is a huge challenge for collaboration’ (Focus group Denmark). In the competition for service contracts, private companies increasingly enter the social service market. This renders equal partnerships almost impossible, as municipalities, regional or national agencies and politicians set the conditions for collaboration. ‘The focus is so much on the delivery that conversations about partnership are forgotten’ (Focus group Denmark). However, in certain contexts it helps to have a large network that can carry on a reputation to be innovative. ‘We have to meet their requirements and further, we should surprise them, and give them something they didn’t expect. Otherwise, they won’t use us. It is about being relevant’ (CEO Grennesminde). The surprise and innovation factors seem to be appreciated by municipalities, alongside qualitative service provision (see Graph 4).

Graph 4: Experience with collaboration

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "totally disagree" and +3 "totally agree".

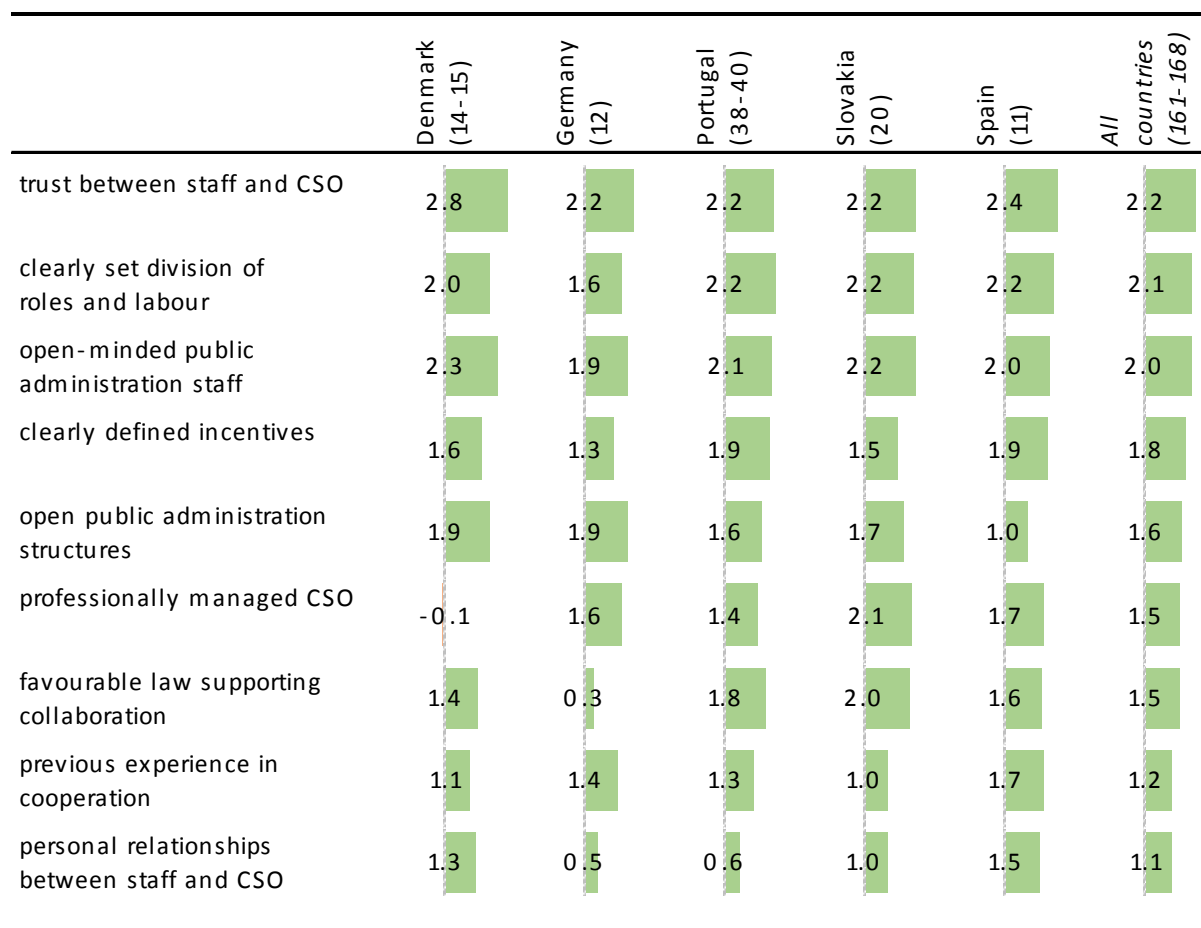
In addition to that there is strong sense that cross-sectorial deliberative efforts are needed to determine new modes of collaboration, bringing a range of stakeholders together around the table. 'An honest conversation is needed about how power can be shifted, emphasising reciprocity' (focus group Scotland), because a finance-dominant logic threatens to replace community-driven logic, rendering any sense of equal partnership impossible (Focus group Denmark). Long-term collaborative agreements not only between municipalities and TS/SE organisations, but also among TS/SE organisations themselves, other actors like universities, businesses and partners that constitute the institutional lifeworlds of actors, facilitated by political process at different administrative levels, could be a way to re-define working relationships in times of austerity.

Trust and openness for innovation

Personal connections to policy makers and public officials, access to decision-making venues and opportunities for deliberation are key determinants of collaboration for TS/SE organisations studied for SOLIDUS, as they all contribute to building trust relations between actors in different sectors. 'On a scale from 1-10, trust is a clear 10', said one representative of a municipality in Denmark. Trust has been identified as an important driver in other work packages of this project, i.e. in WP2 in relation to trust of communities in solidarity initiatives to transform a situation where governments have failed, supported by positive public discourse in the media. TS/SE actors are actively working towards trust relations. One of USE's directors, for instance, maintains a personal relationship with former Berlin Secretary of State for Health and Social Affairs, which presents an opportunity to talk outside formal

roles and routines. *Kontaktstelle* in Leipzig has personal links to a federal deputy of the Left and employs a member of the city council. MUG's CEO is deeply engaged in regional networking on Boards, committees and other venues. The role of trustful relationships has been underlined in several interviews with representatives of public institutions in case studies and focus groups. It also scored as top factor for successful collaboration in the online survey with public officials (see Graph 5).

Graph 5: Factors for successful collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

The downside of this avenue of collaboration is that policy makers do not necessarily stay in their positions for a long time, forcing actors of TS/SE organisations to establish new contacts, often in their spare time, which is tiring and unnerving. A member of staff of GHN in Scotland stressed that it had taken five years of ever-closer partnership working to get to this point. 'Trust and recognising each other's different expertise was absent ten years ago, but relationships have so markedly changed over that period, it has meant that some of the best work...that has been about co-production, has been as a result of relationships changing.' In Berlin, the climate between social policy makers and administration and TS/SE organisations providing services has turned sour since a scandal in 2010 when it was uncovered that the CEO of a social organisation had put public money into his own pockets.

The result was what USE's CEO described a complete change of Berlin's collaborative and contracting culture, introducing tough control mechanisms that seem suffocating to organisations (CEO USE).

TS/SE organisations often have the capacity to mobilise volunteers in ways that municipalities cannot, hence public officials have to learn and should be allowed to take the benefit of a doubt when organisations propose a possible solution. Organisations like *Kontaktstelle Wohnen* in Germany that emerged during the refugee crisis are a good example, as they offered a service complementary to the administration's responsibility that it itself was not able to fulfil. However, the sense of a lack of trust relations between the organisation and social administration that staff members negatively connect to bureaucratic demands perceived as a way to control and prevent misconduct, is frustrating for the staff who sometimes feel that they mostly 'administer themselves' (Staff *Kontaktstelle*). The same perception exists in other countries: 'Today the road is very long and very bureaucratic. Where I previously could act from the heart, my actions now much more need to start from the brain in this collaboration' (focus group Denmark).

Other organisations, including long-standing players in the field, also complain about regulatory zeal that disenchant people from engaging in TS/SE activity, undermining the reciprocity dimension that is a key characteristic of the sector. 'We are seeing a shortage of people who are ready to take responsibility and move ahead with fresh ideas'. It 'hinders that sense of success which instils the hunger to do more' (CEO MUG). On the other hand, MUG's CEO blames a new culture of doing only what is necessary, not more, which goes hand in hand with a decrease in citizen engagement. Even if bureaucracy is systemic, interviewees said it would be helpful to have clear points of contact, not several people within the administration who send contradicting messages, a generally positive disposition, more friendly emails, a 'culture of mistakes', and open-mindedness towards others (focus group Germany).

There is evidence that fostering trust and reciprocity in the context of local conditions, including collectively agreed operational rules, supports cross-sectorial collaboration (Nyssens & Petrella, 2015). One aspect of trust is clarity about the distribution of roles and decision-making power. The former Secretary of State for Social Affairs in Berlin gives the example of rattled trust-relations between city administration and social care organisations and how to restore them: 'In negotiations of the new Berlin Framework Contract this defective relationship was quite visible. They were all blaming each other: social organisations were blaming public administration and politics. Politics blamed social organisations. Public administration blamed social organisations or politics alternately'. He underlines that trust needed restoring. His approach was being open and upfront about what is realistic and what is not. Eye-to-eye level in terms of respect, yes, taking the experience of social organisations into account, yes, understanding that the city needs them, yes, but in the end fiscal and social policy is the responsibility of the Berlin parliament,

implemented by public administration. In his view consultation and dialogue between state and social organisations have improved since 2013, underlining once more the importance of deliberative arenas.

If fiscal responsibility means, however, that every opportunity will be used to reduce public spending, then politicians responsible have to explain this rationale to their constituencies. If a policy is about fostering the autonomy of disadvantaged people, as in the case of new Law on Participation in Germany following the UN Guidelines on the Inclusion of Persons with Disabilities, it should not turn into a policy on fixing federal deficits (CEO USE). The idea is to give more decision-making power to the individual what kind of rehabilitation they want, by moving responsibility to pay from social welfare like pension funds to employment agencies, who can choose to finance employment under certain protected conditions or accompanied by a coach. This means, decisions are no longer taken in a team of people around the person in question but by a case manager. ‘It appears to be concerned with the well-being of the disabled person. ... It does not look at the disability of the person but at society disabling this person’ (CEO USE). If a person is deemed fit to work in principle but cannot perform on the normal labour market they are subject of redistribution in the form of basic social benefits (Hartz IV). ‘Just because we cannot perform well enough we will be reduced to receiving benefits. I don’t see much solidarity in that’ (Employee USE). Hearing the voices of experts in the field and including them in policy decisions is key to create and maintain trust relations and makes collaborative partnerships more transparent.

Access to resources

The difficulty to obtain public funding as part of austerity measures has already been described in Deliverable Report 4.2., and in other comparative research projects on TS/SE. They pick up on the new culture of service contracts and project funding that has replaced operational funding that can benefit organisational infrastructure and long-term planning that make TS/SE organisations fit to be reliable collaborative partners (Fonović et al., 2016). Public agencies also have to acknowledge that working with volunteers does not come for free, as they need recruiting, training, and management to make the volunteer experience satisfactory and people come back for more. Volunteers remain an unpredictable resource, as they chose for themselves what cause to give time to. Hence, public agencies cannot take free services for granted and need to provide some contingency funding for core operations.

Many TS/SE organisations studied are already quite creative in pooling resources, often from a mix of sources. Despite austerity being a general reality there are certain policy fields where fundraising for public money is reasonably easy and where innovative strategies are emerging. CPM in Lisbon benefitted from a local intervention policy programme that equips associations with start-up funding for a new project designed to involve and connect local community, limited to €50.000 (Programme coordinator). During the so-called refugee crisis in Germany, refugee support organisations were able to raise public funds while at the same time city administrations dealing with refugees remained understaffed. ‘There are maybe 10

or 20 people in Leipzig's institutions like social services and job centre who can shake things up, the rest operates between burnout and just processing what's necessary' (Board member, *Kontaktstelle*), showing the relative flexibility of civil society based organisations to fund at least temporary paid positions. However, those remain precarious, as funding might not be renewed.

The same informant said that administration depends on working with innovative groups, and should therefore relax their strict funding procedures: 'Autonomous groups need a degree of freedom, which means changing the funding landscape along chains of impact and results' (Board member *Kontaktstelle*). This also requires more precise impact measurement that takes into account social and economic impact as well as impact on well-being, a challenge so far unresolved (Enjolras, 2016). At the same time, political support and appreciation of the initiative is high (Policy maker Leipzig). A challenge here is a better interconnectedness of administrations and policy arenas tackling issues that blur the boundaries of responsibility of different sectors and essentially span more than one administrative department.

Strong leadership

Strong leadership in TS/SE organisations is generally an asset. It involves the willingness to tackle multiple challenges, active political participation, the pursuit of collaboration with the public sector and other local actors, and a good business strategy to ensure the economic survival of the organisation. Leaders of organisations interviewed in Germany mentioned being motivated by 'proving elites wrong' that maintain that certain things will not work (*Board member Kontaktstelle*); by 'new challenges and things that fascinate' and an optimist's believe local change (CEO MUG); by the positive feedback of employees concerning improvements in their social and economic lives and the institutional challenge to de-couple a non-profit social mission from public funding and influence (CEO USE). Interviewees working for SPAP in Lisbon underline the role of the network coordinator's mind-set, motivation and communication skills.

Partnerships and cross-departmental collaboration

The example of one of GAME's planned activities, a GAME house offering creative activities for young people in the municipality of Viborg in Denmark demonstrates how good collaborative partnerships can promote cross-departmental collaboration. 'From the beginning, GAME pointed out that it would only be interesting for them if we (as a municipality) not only enter as the department of culture and social affairs, who traditionally deal with this area, but also various other departments. They kind of demanded that it had to be a united municipality of Viborg which joins forces on this project' (representative municipality). That the social organisation sets the conditions sounds unusual, but in this case GAME has something to offer that the municipality wants and hence 'there is a respect

towards the fact that we as the municipality of Viborg have our wishes, needs, and demands, and that GAME have theirs' (ibid.).

Some municipalities in Denmark have hired consultants – on civil society, social economy, citizen participation - which might support both cross-sectorial and cross-departmental collaboration. 'I have tried to position myself with a leg in two public administrations in order to function as a liaison between the job centre and the municipality's business services; I am trying to tie together interests in both places' (focus group Denmark), but there is a sense that it is sustainable engagement that counts: 'I think that within the last five years or so you see so many of these roles are appearing - but it is so vulnerable, and so fast gone' (Staff CWA). Lack of collaboration between administrative departments has been flagged as problematic by a number of TS/SE organisations. Focus group participants in Portugal suggested that City Councils could be relevant intermediaries at local level, but this might contradict cultures of administrative autonomy like in Germany, or be too vulnerable to political interests.

CPM's lobbying in favour of the community in Mouraria in Lisbon is framed by the relationship that it establishes with the local power structures (municipal chamber and parish councils) and with other organizations that operate in the same territory and present themselves as potential partners. While the philosophy is to be independent they will have to seek partnerships at local level in order to survive as a community-run business. The programme that has so far supported CPM is located within the City Council and the team is committed to support deeper contact, using the good reputation of the programme: 'The programme is innovative, and the City Council still has a road to go to be responsive to that innovative dynamic. But still BIP/ZIP accomplishes results and realities where the council has not reached before and being a local program compels all its services to address real needs' (Programme coordinator).

Acknowledgment of wider impact

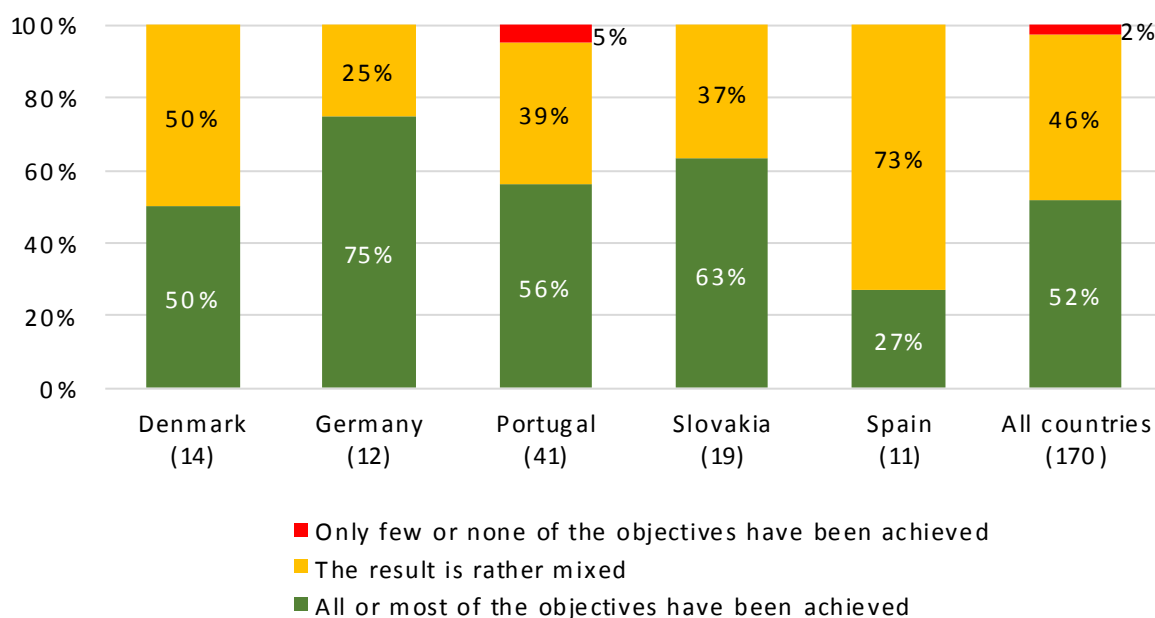
As already pointed out in the WP2 report (38) there appears to be a lack of data concerning the social impact of activities. Measuring impact is a difficult task, tools for assessing the social return on investment are to date imprecise (Enjolras, 2015), and yet it is much needed to create a better understanding of the overall contributions of TS/SE organisations towards personal autonomy, social justice, savings in public spending through reciprocity and attracting other resources, community building and democratic participation that go beyond collaboration with the public sector on a singular issue, defined by goal formulation and contract.

In other words, how to measure solidarity economy? Current measurement practice has been criticised to threaten to itemise social value (focus group Scotland), with the danger of commodifying social values in contracts, 'monetised by the private sector in the race to win'

(Civil Exchange, 2014:110). ‘I think in terms of evidence, there needs to be considerably more input into how we evidence third sector input, self-management and co-production. It’s a question of actually changing what measures are legitimate now. We’ve gone some way towards that but I think that we need to push harder at that’ (manager ALLIANCE). Portugal is one of the few countries in Europe that has implemented a satellite account of the social economy, bringing evidence on type of activities, the number of entities and macroeconomic aggregates of SE organizations (Pires, 2013), but still excluding ‘soft impacts’ like well-being and personal autonomy.

The social impact, often based on the more holistic approach by third sector and social economy organisations to strengthen the individual in all areas of life (improved health, more economic autonomy through education and/ or employment, personal growth through support systems like social workers and being part of a mixed community of end-users, staff members, sometimes volunteers, political representation through advocacy activities on the issues affecting them) and a frequent attempt at internal participation, albeit to varying degrees, is not always understood as economic impact as well. With the division of administrative responsibilities this holistic impact might be hard to demonstrate. It might also explain the rather mixed matching of expectations by public officials (see Graph 6).

Graph 6: Objectives achieved within last collaboration



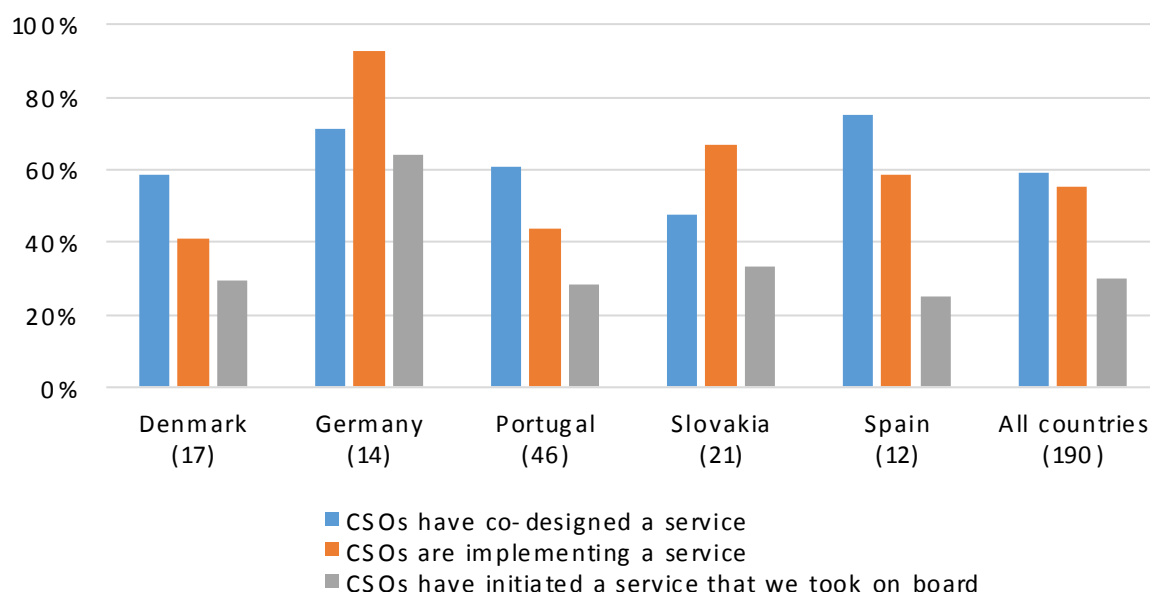
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

5 Conclusions: changing patterns of collaboration?

5.1 General observations: distribution of roles

Investigations for the report have focussed on TS/SE collaboration with public institutions across the policy fields of employment, health, education and housing in six countries. Rigorous comparative evidence in a quantitative sense is difficult to obtain from a relatively small number of case studies. However, the methodological triangulation of case studies, survey and focus groups bringing together stakeholders working in different fields on the same subject adds both rigor and quality to the results of this investigation on TS/SE collaboration with the public sector. Accordingly, we identified a number of drivers and barriers for collaboration. Particularly the barriers are similar across national contexts and fields. The survey with public administration staff that collaborate with TS/SE organisations confirm some of the drivers and barriers identified by social actors. The previous chapter identified more barriers than drivers, but this section looks at more promising developments.

First of all we must remind of the huge variety in collaborative relationships. Often contact is limited to funding issues. Depending on the area of work, i.e. in youth support or mental health, local administrations and CSOs meet regularly, while in others contact is purely based on email. Many TS/SE organisations find themselves in contractual relationships as service providers, but quite a few, mostly advocacy and service organisations, foundations and some non-profit associations, are also regularly consulted on policy questions and see themselves as initiators or co-designers, indicating a certain openness of public agencies to incorporate innovations in providing services and trying new ways of dealing with socio-economic challenges at local level, as also indicated by public sector representatives in Graph 7.

Graph 7: Nature of relationship

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Across the sample much depends on personal connections, trust and personal motivations to network and collaborate, which usually requires a certain period of time, making it harder for new actors to enter into public sector partnerships. The personal investments and relationships plus the multiple effects of TS/SE activity vis-à-vis differentiated public administrations make it hard to institutionalise collaboration in general terms. As it stands, it has to be negotiated on a case-by-case basis. There is possibly a broader recognition, also in legislative terms, that social organisations come up with innovative ideas, are in touch with the target group, and are able to mobilise civic support that administrations cannot, but austerity measures and liberalisation of welfare create ambivalent policy responses between citizen and TS/SE engagement strategies on the one hand, and contract culture and bureaucratic control on the other.

In stronger welfare state contexts public administrations might go through an adaptation period sharing responsibilities with TS/SE organisations. Despite long traditions of collaboration informants in Denmark, Germany and Scotland mention a possible anxiety of public agencies to loose influence through too much collaborative partnerships in areas that used to be exclusively domain of the state. Also public officials have to learn austerity and new public management. In Spain focus group participants spoke of 'social militancy' required through austerity, underlining the necessity to collaborate across sectors. As TS/SE organisations are already mobilizing multiple resources – even though not all of them manage and many organisations in Spain had to close operations – they see themselves as good partners for public institutions, but the latter have to learn to share power (Focus group Spain).

TS/SE organisations studied and interviewed for this work package predominantly see themselves as initiators or co-designers of an initiative, rarely as mere implementers, indicating a more active and self-confident role while being aware of financial dependencies on the public sector. ‘The basic principle of cooperation is that everyone is a winner – the citizen, the community, the municipality, the state. There is a realisation that the public sector needs to think in new ways about how to work with different issues to find a more sustainable solution for the citizens’ (Focus group Denmark). However, it has to be more than a lip-service enshrined in national policies promising more citizen-participation in policy formulation and services without providing the right framework conditions (see also SOLIDUS Deliverable 4.2:10).

This touches on the question to what extent citizens should have to become co-producers of services. In a welfare state where social security is seen as a right, ‘excluded communities should not have to participate in order to have the same claim on service quality and provision as other members of society have’ (Taylor 2003, 165). TS/SE organisations are effective intermediaries that can actively engage disadvantaged people or groups in activities that affect their autonomy in various ways (see section 5.2). They do so by drawing on different resources like philanthropic or democratic reciprocity, public redistribution and market mechanisms. Especially the reciprocity dimension differentiates TS/SE organisations from public or market entities, which is their strength but also a weakness, as citizen-centered notions of public welfare carry the risk to subordinate voluntary action and mutuality oriented towards solving complex social problems to policy goals increasingly influenced by efficiency factors like costs of a solution.

Many interviewees from TS/SE organisations have referred to hierarchical relations (*Kontaktstelle*), mostly due to funding dependency, lack of trust (USE), partnership in service delivery but not necessarily in decision-making or policy design (Grennesminde), or referring to attempts of municipality actors to take over (CWA). Organisations in Scotland, on the other hand, were mostly positive about their relationships with public agencies, but the cases studied are all strongly engaged in advocacy functions and serve on a number of consultative bodies. Another possible explanation offered was the small size of Scotland, which might make TS/ government relations easier. It is also more centralised in its provision of care services than other countries included in this study, granting more immediate impact at policy level than in more decentralised systems where relationships need to be established in each municipality.

In Spain, on the other hand, NHF describes its input to policy platforms as anecdotal, and political change as slow and bureaucratic. Nevertheless, TS/SE organisations studied in the Basque country perceive collaborative relationships with public administration at regional authority level as more open, despite a parallel increase in bureaucracy: ‘In the administration, there has also been an evolution: there are more prepared people, more

committed people, mainly women, more permeable. That makes it possible for us to intervene in society’ (Focus group Spain).

The village of Rankovce in Slovakia, where municipalities enjoy a lot of administrative independence, and where a non-profit organisation in collaboration with the municipality supported and activated 16 Roma families to build their own houses, demonstrates that close collaboration with the target group not only solves problems for the municipality, it also gives them much to learn about supportive policy formulation, as members of local administrations themselves get closer to the situation of poor communities. However, national policy must be supportive of local actions. In the case of Slovakia, the SOLIDUS researchers found that the national government lacks the political will to plan and implement activities proposed in the Strategy of the Slovak Republic for integration of the Roma up to 2020, and does not acknowledge ways proposed by TS/SE organisations.

Collaboration works best when it is a win-win situation, where TS/SE organisation and public agency either follow similar goals, i.e. in the case of PPPF in Scotland, where both the founder of the organisation and the Scottish government wanted to do something to support ex-prisoners and prevent re-offending. It also works when organisations offer a service that serves different goals, as arguably the case in CWA’s collaboration with municipalities who want to support the well-being of their elderly population, while CWA has a broader community-building agenda. There might be even another agenda behind some municipality’s embrace of CWA: ‘There is a big difference between the municipal ambition and the municipal motivation behind starting on Cycling Without Age, because there is no municipality with self-respect that does not have a volunteer policy, which means that many times we are also invited because we can recruit volunteers. Here the solidarity is in harsh conditions’ (Focus group Denmark).

In Slovakia, case examples of collaboration work well because they are EU-funded projects or follow international models like Teach for Slovakia that bring prestige, trust in a tested model, and that promote cross-sectorial collaboration, which resonates with self-government at municipal level. ‘By law, the municipality is theoretically obliged to provide housing for its residents, but it is practically impossible due to limited resources’ (Mayor Rankovce). International projects like this might promote the acknowledgement of collaborative partnerships with TS/SE sector organisations at national level.

Bureaucracy is mentioned by some TS/SE stakeholders interviewed as a barrier to core operations, particularly for smaller organisations with few staff members. This complaint goes hand in with the demand that public administrations should be a bit more open to risk and give initiatives the benefit of a doubt – which needs backing up by the political system. While the TS might be closer to the citizen and have creative solutions, the municipality remains accountable, making equal partnerships tricky despite similar commitment of both sectors to the issue in terms of political liability and legitimacy. This is a challenge that needs

addressing by political will and public legislation. i.e. the Spanish Law that for the first time acknowledges the need of a third sector, as mentioned above.

Finally again, one size does not fit all. Not all TS/SE activity has the purpose to collaborate long-term, sometimes initiatives see themselves as an incubator to make it community owned, sometimes collaboration will be ongoing i.e. in the case of work integration of long-term unemployed and people with disabilities. Others yet do not seek close ties to administration as they see themselves as advocacy rather than service organisation. There is no recipe for channelling solidarity through TS/SE and public sector collaboration. A lot of barriers that are either of systemic, political or financial nature have sometimes worsened and sometimes promoted collaboration, depending on spatial factors as much as on personal commitment. If anything there is a general sense among TS/SE organisations of having something to offer and of public agencies in principle being ready to take them up on it. The modalities need further negotiation. ‘We need to get that dialogue going, which we already have, but we need to figure out how to dance tango again and I think we will figure it out because the municipality wants us, and we know that deep down, and we also want the municipality’ (Focus group Denmark).

5.2 Supporting autonomy

The wish ‘to create a society where everyone is something for someone’ (Focus group Denmark) is a strong motivator for many solidarity actions (see also SOLIDUS Deliverable 3.2.). Furthermore, the focus on the individual not only as sick, unemployed, or homeless but also as a member of community, a relative, a person confronted with multiple factors of exclusion is driving TS/SE action. Several informants interviewed for this WP, mostly from hybrid organisations, shared the impression that the work of their organisation is mostly perceived as social, while ignoring the economic contributions or vice versa (mostly in WISEs). Others have complained that service contracts and competition distract from the community and advocacy aspects of organisations. Public officials interviewed referred to partnerships and collaboration in implementing social policy targeting certain groups and the win-win situation for administration, but there was little mention of the impact on the autonomy of individuals in social, democratic and economic terms and what this means for social justice. Maybe such value-oriented and normative reflections are more the domain of politicians than of public administrations.

Case studies across the SOLIDUS project illustrate the social justice dimension of solidarity action: giving people in vulnerable situations a community to join, integrating them in activities visible in communities, most notably through work, finding adequate housing for refugees or supporting Roma families in obtaining their own house, supporting people without access to health care to get their rights, finding ways to support families with sick

relatives, re-entering life after a prison sentence, taking youth from disadvantaged communities off the streets through activities on the streets – the list of examples is long. The cases share a set of values they pursue in their work that aim at change and transformation: re-instating people's sense of self-worth, showing ways towards self-help and the capacity to act, and supporting them to take the first steps.

Organisations working and collaborating in the field of employment either offer long-term protected employment or try to integrate people into the labour market. This work is in public interest and demand, and supported by various legislative and fiscal mechanisms and frameworks. However, employing people in social enterprises does not only create economic solidarity. It also contributes to the well-being of a person by being a colleague and friend, valued in the eyes of colleagues, but also in the regard of outsiders as someone earning their living, linking autonomy to reciprocity. 'For example, when we create a flower bed that NOMA (*red. Danish Michelin star restaurant*) have chosen for their business, then it is not because it is a good business for us, but because it is a great story for our young people—they help produce something that one of the world's best restaurants buy and use' (staff member, Grennesminde).

Being in charge of one's own life is an important step towards autonomy: 'People who have been out of work for five, ten or fifteen years have someone to talk to, someone who functions as a bridge between employer and employee. ... Over the years people have totally lost self-determination, alertness and participation. We have to bring those straits back first' (CEO MUG). The effect of unemployment on people differs, but can be immense, limiting self-confidence, the ability to deal with routines or taking decisions and acting independently. In a WISE context it helps when regular staff and employees (the beneficiaries) engage in joint activities and address each other respectfully, while offering the support a mentally ill, socially vulnerable, disabled or otherwise disadvantaged individual needs in terms of social-pedagogical, medical or psychological support, professional skills training, etc.

An employee at *Kontakstelle* in Leipzig, who applied for asylum after losing his student visa due to mental health issues, describes how living in a reception centre for refugees profoundly undermines people's autonomy in every aspect of life:

'You have no save haven, no refuge. In a shelter there is no privacy, it was the worst experience of my life. At that time, if I had been able to choose between a house and bed in Libya or the shelter in Germany, I would have chosen the war zone. But I was in the middle of my asylum application and was unable to leave the country. I wanted to look for a flat myself, but the immigration office was in charge of my accommodation. At least I was able to solve my own problems, as I speak German, but the others are just sitting there and have somehow lost hope, they have no perspective in Germany. They cannot really learn German either, because people are running around, children are shouting, it's not the kind of place where you sit down and learn a language. (...) That's not help ... it's torture.'

In Slovakia, newly self-built homes by Roma families in Rankovce are sometimes ‘the most important thing they have achieved in their lives’, serving as a spring-board to permanent employment. ‘During the self-help construction the client grows personally and acquires the professional skills that they apply when they get a job. It can fundamentally improve their basic living conditions, which has a direct impact on the family budget, the health of family members, improving the opportunities for educating children and earning income from legal work (Director ETP Slovakia).

Dependence on the help of others due to some form of vulnerability carries a stigma. Some USE employees in Berlin do not want to wear the organisation’s own line of work clothes when they meet with clients, they rather appear as ordinary workers. ‘No one needs to know that it is in a protected workshop. Some people don’t even tell that to their families’ (Employee USE). Providing an environment that raises self-esteem is one important goal when people learn to strike a balance between expectations too high or too low. ‘Our job is to foster self-actualisation, helping people to become effective agents, re-gaining independence from a system of care and public benefits’ (Social worker, USE).

TS/SE organisations can be a transit zone towards autonomy. An ex-prison inmate who was supported by PPPF after his release ended up opening his own mentoring initiative: ‘We use our lived experience as mentors...it’s key to showing how you turn your life round. But we did not know how to do that. Positive prisons showed us that. What it gave me was a form of self-worth. Confidence you know, to take on challenges. What the guys there had done was they gave us the ability to actually grow’ (user PPPF). GHN seconds the role of self-help. ‘We’ve found a way for people to be active in finding solutions for themselves and others. So a lot of capacity building with *now I can offer other things, there’s other skills I can bring*. I think there’s definitely that social impact for a lot of the volunteers, things that they never imagined being able to do, and things they never thought the opportunity would be there for them to do’ (Staff GHN).

At the same time, one should not forget that for some people there are clear limits to autonomy, e.g. caused by illness or disability. Those limits must be acknowledged and accommodated by policy makers without losing sight of what is possible. The example of protected employment in Berlin e.g. is a story of general support of such WISEs, but embedded in legislative reform and financial austerity, creating a sense that it is not the disabled person who is the focus of social policy, but that the primary objective of public administration in Berlin is to reduce spending. ‘Our role has been weakened, the disabled person in between, seemingly autonomous, able to decide for himself. And if he or she is in the middle of a schizophrenic spell they say, *I don’t need help. It’s not me who’s crazy, you are*. Then he can stay at home on benefits. And the case manager is glad she didn’t have to spend any money’ (CEO USE). However, in the end it is politicians that need to understand the role and value of organisations like USE. ‘Administration has understood this. The

problem is rather those making the laws, they are so far removed from the issue that they produce unrealistic regulations’ (Policy maker). ‘If I want people with disabilities to actively participate in society, in the labour market, I must create the right conditions. It needs investment. I cannot say *I want it but it cannot cost anything*’ (CEO USE). This would be the end of work integration and social participation of a number of people with disabilities in Berlin. On the contrary, one USE staff member feels that the system needs to be more flexible and more tailored to individual needs rather than a one-size-fits-all approach.

It is in the attempt to leave no one behind where TS/SE organisations need political, financial and legislative support, networks, trust and the support of communities that together constitute the framework conditions for fostering autonomy. Focus group participants in Scotland, Portugal and Spain underlined the role of collaboration for empowering individuals, particularly in shaping healthcare, describing it as ‘the only way to keep an ongoing, meaningful dialogue and involvement with people who are living with mental health problems’ and of ‘embedding expertise’ using a ‘broader spectrum of evidence’ (Focus group Scotland).

The solidarity economy framework underlines the voluntary participation of vulnerable people in an initiative offered by TS/SE organisations, implying that they want to improve or change their situation. This is evident in many cases studied. In the case of the Building Hope project by social support organisation ETP Slovakia beneficiaries have to clearly demonstrate their intention to change their lives before they are eligible to micro-loans that allow them to start constructing their own homes. Employees of SSI cooperative in Spain have to raise the funds to become members first, supported by Spanish legislation. Formerly long-term unemployed working for MUG’s social business have to demonstrate the will to pull through after being fully informed what will be expected, employees in USE have actively chosen to retrain and take employment in a protected workshop.

With their activities TS/SE organisations are pushing for alternative ways of providing services, of thinking, and of public discourses about their target groups, which are important contributions to democratic decision-making and participation. Even if direct policy impact is hard to measure or achieve, participating in public discourse through consultations, gaining recognition through media coverage or visibility in public spaces for the sake of presenting alternative solutions and sharing the perspectives of their target groups is a crucial component in maintaining and nourishing a democratic culture. Through their active engagement in the public sphere, organisations are able to promote both autonomy in the form of active and social citizenship to individuals and solidarity as a policy vision, albeit to varying degrees depending on target groups and surrounding environment.

Public agencies and policy makers need to understand better the solidarity economy principles and integrate them in their normative, strategic and institutional thinking. The plural perception of economy as market-based activity, redistribution, as well as various

forms of reciprocity corresponds to the way many TS/SE organisations work. It needs a comprehensive vision of what collaborative partnerships can offer to target groups of social policy and individuals alike, with a stronger focus on the role of autonomy and what it means in relation to social justice in society. Then public agencies can reform the way they work, not only collaborating across sectors, bringing together the spheres of market, state and civic life, but also across administrative and political departments, to maximise support, efficiency and efficacy. Such targets would most likely increase the long-term social and political sustainability of European societies.

Bibliography

- Agranoff, R. 1991. Human services integration: Past and present challenges in public administration. *Public Administration Review* 51 (6): 533–542.
- Alcock, P. (2012) New policy spaces: the impact of devolution on third sector policy in the UK. *Social Policy Administration*, Volume 46, Issue 2, pages 219–238.
- Alcock, P. (2010) *A Strategic Unity: Defining the Third Sector in the UK*.
- Alcock, P. (2009) *Devolution or Divergence? Third Sector Policy across the UK since 2000*. TSRC's Working Paper 2.
- Anheier, H. K., Krlev, G., Preuss, S., Mildemberger, G. (2015) *Frameworks, the Third Sector and Social Innovation* ITSSOIN Policy brief. February 2015. Deliverable 2.5 of the project: 'Impact of the Third Sector as Social Innovation' (ITSSOIN), European Commission – 7th Framework Programme. Brussels: European Commission, DG Research.
- Anheier, H.K., G. Krlev, S. Preuss, G. Mildemberger and T. Einarsson (2014) Theory and Empirical Capturing of the Third Sector at the Macro Level. 'Impact of the Third Sector as Social Innovation' (ITSSOIN), European Commission – 7th Framework Programme. Brussels: European Commission, DG Research.
- Bekkers, V. (2016) *Social Innovation in the Public Sector: Drivers, Trends and Scenarios*, LIPSE research report.
- Brandsen, T. & M. Honingh (2015) Distinguishing Different Types of Coproduction: A Conceptual Analysis Based on the Classical Definitions, *Public Administration Review*, May 2016, Vol.76(3), pp.427–435.
- Brandsen, T., Pestoff, V. & Verschure, B. (2014) *Co-production and the third sector. The state of the art in research*, Defourny, J., Hulgård, L. & Pestoff, V. (eds) *Social Enterprise, Third Sector. Changing European Landscapes in a Comparative Perspective*, London: Routledge.
- Brinkerhoff, J. (2002) Government–nonprofit partnership: a defining framework, *Public Administration and Development*, February.
- Castells, M. (1996). *The rise of the network society—The information age: Economy, society and culture*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- CES (2016) Memoria sobre la situación socioeconómica y laboral de España 2015 <http://www.ces.es/web/guest/memorias>
- Chaves-Avila, R. (2016) *The Third Sector in Spain*, Policy Brief 10/2016. A deliverable of the project "Third Sector Impact" (TSI), European Commission–7th Framework Programme. Brussels: European Commission, DG Research.
- Chaves-Avila, R. Alguacil-Mari, P. Fajardo-Garcia, I.G., Savall-Morera, T. (2016) *National report on third sector barriers in Spain*, National Report No. 08/2016, A deliverable of the project "Third Sector Impact" (TSI), European Commission–7th Framework Programme. Brussels: European Commission, DG Research.
- Civil Exchange (2014). *Making Good: The Future of the Voluntary Sector. A Collection of Essays by Voluntary Sector Leaders*. pp. 94.
- Cornforth, C.H., J.P. Hayes and S. Vangen. 2015. 'Nonprofit-Public Collaborations: Understanding Governance Dynamics', *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 44, 4, 775–95.
- Costa, P. (2013) *External communication practices and organizational legitimacy: a perspective from the Portuguese Third Sector*. EMES-SOCENT Conference Selected Papers, no. LG13-51. 4th EMES

International Research Conference on Social Enterprise - Liege, 2013.

Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2016) How to bring the Centres of Gravity of the Non-Profit Sector and the Social Economy Closer to each other? In *Voluntas* 27: 1546-1561.

Defourny, J., L. Hulgård & Pestoff, V. (2014): *Social Enterprise and the Third Sector – Changing European Landscapes in a Comparative Perspective*. New York: Routledge.

EC (European Commission). (2014). *A map of social enterprises and their eco-systems in Europe. Country Report: Portugal*. London, UK.

Enjolras, B. (2015) “Measuring the Impact of the Third Sector: From Concept to Metrics”, TSI Working Paper No. 5, Seventh Framework Programme (grant agreement 613034), European Union. Brussels: Third Sector Impact.

Enjolras, B. (2016) Assessing the macro socio-economic impact of the third sector in Europe. Theoretical considerations and some empirical evidences. TSI Working Paper Series No. 10. 7th Framework Programme (grant agreement 613034), European Union. Brussels: Third Sector Impact.

Edwards, M. (2004) *Civil society*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Evers, A. & Laville, J.-L. (eds.) (2004). *The Third Sector in Europe*, Cheltenham and Northampton: Edward Elgar.

Ferreira, S. (2015). New Paths for Third-Sector Institutions in a Welfare State in Crisis: The Case of Portugal. *Nonprofit Policy Forum*, 6(2), pp. 213-241.

frivillighed.dk. (2014). Hentede 06. 10 2015 fra <http://www.frivillighed.dk/Webnodes/FAQ++fakta%2C+tal+og+begreber/21087#4>

Habermas, Jürgen (1996) *Between Facts and Norms. Contributions to a Discourse Theory of Law and Democracy*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Habermas, J. (1990) *Strukturwandel der Öffentlichkeit*. Frankfurt a.M.: Suhrkamp Verlag.

Harvey, B. (2014) *Government Funding and Social Justice Advocacy*. Dublin: The Advocacy Initiative, Carmichael House.

Gardin, L. (2014). Gardin, L. 2014. ‘Solidarity-Based Initiatives. Field Realities and Analysis.’ In Defourny et al. In *Social Enterprise and the Third Sector: Changing European Landscapes in a Comparative Perspective*, edited by J. Defourny, L. Hulgård, and V. Pestoff. New York: Routledge.

GHN (2017 b): <http://www.ghn.org.uk/navigate/>

Henriksen, L.S., S.R. Smith and A. Zimmer. 2012. At the Eve of Convergence? Transformation of Social Service Provision in Denmark, Germany, and the United States. *Voluntas* 23(2): 458- 501.

Hoemke, P., B. Pahl, C. Rentzsch and A. Zimmer (2016) *National Report Germany: Identifying External and Internal Barriers on Third Sector Development*. TSI National Report Series No. – 7th Framework Programme. Brussels: Third Sector Impact.

Home Office (2003). *Building Civil Renewal: Government Support for Community Capacity Building and Proposals for Change*. London: Home Office.

Home Office (2004). *ChangeUp: Capacity Building and Infrastructure Framework for the Voluntary and Community Sector*. London: Home Office.

Hulgård, L. (2015): *Differing Perspectives on Civil Society and the State*, in J.L. Laville, D. Young & P. Eynaud (red.): *Civil Society, the Third Sector and Social Enterprise – Governance and Democracy*. London & New York: Routledge.

Hulgård, L. (2011) Social economy and social enterprise: an emerging alternative to mainstream market economy? *China Journal of Social Work*, 4:3, 201-215.

- Hulgård, L. (2010) Public and social entrepreneurship, in Hart, Laville and Cattani *The Human Economy*. London: Polity Press.
- Hulgård, L (2004) *Entrepreneurship in Community Development and Local Governance*. In: Peter Bogason, Sandra Kensen, Hugh T. Miller (eds.), *Tampering with Tradition: The Unrealized Authority of Democratic Agency* (s. 87-107). Lanham: Lexington Books.
- Hulgård, L. & Andersen, L. L. (2012) *Socialt entreprenørskab – velfærdsafvikling eller arenaer for solidaritet*, Dansk Sociologi vol. 23, nr. 4. 2012.
- Hulgård, L. & T. Bisballe (2008), *Work integration Social Enterprises in Denmark*. EMES working paper 04/08.
- INE (Instituto Nacional de Estatística) (2011) *Conta Satélite das Instituições sem fim lucrativo*. Lisbon: INE. 2006 http://www.ine.pt/xportal/xmain?xpid=INE&xpgid=ine_publicacoes&PUBLICACOESpub_bo ui=121187746&PUBLICACOESmodo=2
- Jansen, S.A., R.G. Heinze und M. Beckmann (Eds.) (2013) *Sozialunternehmen in Deutschland: Analysen, Trends und Handlungsempfehlungen*. Springer VS: Wiesbaden.
- Keane, John (1998) *Civil Society. Old Images, New Visions*. Cambridge: Polity Press
- Keane, J., (ed.), 1993, *Civil society and the state*. London: Verso.
- Kuviková, H. – Svidroňová, M. (2010) *Kvantitatívny rast a akceptácia súkromných neziskových organizácií v Slovenskej republike*. In: Sborník z medzinárodného vedeckého seminára: Bílá místa teorie a černé díry reforem ve veřejném sektoru II., Brno: Ekonomicko – správní fakulta, Masarykova univerzita.
- Kuviková, H. 2004. In Zimmer, A., Priller, E. (2014) *Future of civil society. Making Central European Nonprofit-Organizations work*. 1. vydanie. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag, 2004.
- Laville, J.L., Salmon, A. (2015) *Rethinking the relationship between governance and democracy. The theoretical framework of the solidarity economy*, in Laville, J.L., Young, D. and P. Eynaud (eds.) *Civil Society, the Third Sector and Social Enterprise. Governance and Democracy*, Routledge: London & New York.
- Laville, J.-L. & Hulgård, L. (2016) *Solidarity Economy, Reciprocity and Social Innovation – SERESI*, to be presented at forthcoming EMES Conference, Louvain-la-Neuve, 3-6 July, 2017.
- Laville, J.-L. (2015) *Social and Solidarity Economy in Historical Perspective* in Utting.
- Laville, J.-L. (2010) *Solidarity Economy* in Hart, K., Laville, J.-L. & Cattani, A.D. (eds.) *The Human Economy*, Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Lorenzo García, R. (2016) La ley del Tercer Sector de Acción Social: una primera visión panorámica, *Revista Española del Tercer Sector* No 34, pp. 155-199.
- Mohan, J. (2016) Developmental trends in the British third sector: evidence on voluntary action by individuals. TSI Working Paper Series No. 14. Seventh Framework Programme (grant agreement 613034), European Union. Brussels: Third Sector Impact.
- Montagut, M. (2008). Educación social, ciudadanía y tercer sector. *Educación Social*, 36. (pp.107-120).
- Monzón, J. L., Chaves, R. (2012). *The Social Economy in the European Union*. European Economic and Social Committee.
- NCVO (2016). UK Civil Society Almanac. Databank. <https://data.ncvo.org.uk/a/almanac16/databank/>
- Nyssens, M., and F. Petrella. (2015). The Social and Solidarity Economy and Ostrom's Approach to Common Pool Resources: Towards a Better Understanding of Institutional Diversity? In *Civil Society, the Third Sector and Social Enterprise. Governance and Democracy*, edited by J.-L. Laville, D. R. Young, and P. Eynaud. London & New York: Routledge.

- Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2009) The Right to Adequate Housing, Fact sheet 21/ rev.1 http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/FS21_rev_1_Housing_en.pdf
- Osborne, S.P. (2010) The (New) Public Governance: A Suitable Case for Treatment? In *The New Public Governance? Emerging Perspectives on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance*, Osbourne, S.P. (ed.) London & New York: Routledge.
- Pérez García, F.; Cucarella, V., Hernández, L, (2015) *Servicios públicos, diferencias territoriales e igualdad de oportunidades*, Fundación BBVA, Bilbao.
- Pestoff, V. (2005) *Democratizing the Welfare State*, paper prepared for the EGPA Third Sector Study Group Conference in Bern, Switzerland.
- PIRES (2013). SOCIAL ENTERPRISE/SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN PORTUGAL. Governo de Portugal.
- Priller, E., M. Alscher, P.J. Droß, F. Paul, C.J. Poldrack, C. Schmeißer and N. Waitkus (2012) Dritte- Sektor- Organisationen Heute: Eigene Ansprüche und Ökonomische Herausforderungen. *Discussion Paper SP IV* (412).
- Ruiz Villafranca, R. (2015): *El Tercer Sector de Acción Social en 2015: Impacto de la Crisis*. Plataforma de ONG de Acción Social, Madrid.
- Scottish Government (2016) *Fairer Scotland Action Plan*.
- Scottish Government (2009) *The Evidence Base for Third Sector Policy in Scotland. A Review of Selected Recent Literature*. Part 2. An Overview of the Third Sector in Scotland.
- Select Committee on Charities (2017). Stronger Charities for a Stronger Society. Report of Session 2016–17, pp. 110.
- Sivesind, K.H. & Selle, P. (2010) Det sivile samfunn i Norge, *Stat & styring*, 2008(03), pp.30-31.
- SCVO (2014). Third Sector Funding and Spending. http://www.scvo.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/third_sector_funding_and_spending_november_2014.pdf, pp. 6.
- SOLIDUS (2017) Research Report on the Spatial Dimensions of Solidarity.
- Somers, M.R. (2008): *Genealogies of Citizenship*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Taylor, M. & Warburton, D. VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations (2003) 14: 321
- Vaceková, G. & Murray Svidroňová, M. (2016) Nonprofit organizations in selected CEE countries: a journey to sustainability. Radom – Brno: Instytut Naukowo-Wydawniczy „Spatium”. Masarykova univerzita, 2016.
- Voorberg, W. (2015) *Co-creation and citizen involvement in social innovation: A comparative case study across 7 EU-countries*, LIPSE Working papers (no. 1). Rotterdam: Erasmus University Rotterdam.
- Zimmer, A. & Pahl, B. (2016) Learning from Europe: Report on third sector enabling and disabling factors, TSI Comparative Report No. 1, Seventh Framework Programme (grant agreement 613034), European Union. Brussels: Third sector Impact.
- Zimmer, A., E. Priller and H. Anheier (2013) *Der Nonprofit-Sektor in Deutschland*. In: Simsa, R., M. Meyer and C. Badelt (Eds.) *Handbuch der Nonprofit-Organisation*, 15-36. Stuttgart: Schäfer- Poeschel.
- Zimmer, A., A. Appel, C. Dittrich, C. Lange, B. Sitterman, F. Stallmann and J. Kendall (2009) Chapter 2 Germany: On the Social Policy Centrality of the Free Welfare Associations. In: Kendall, J. (Ed.) *Handbook on Third Sector Policy in Europe: Multi-Level Processes and Organised Civil Society*, 21-42. Aldershot: Edward Elgar.
- Zimmer, A., and E. Priller (2007) *Gemeinnützige Organisationen im Gesellschaftlichen Wandel*. Wiesbaden: Springer VS.

Annex 1: Focus group guide

FOCUS GROUP RATIONALE

As mentioned above, this guide follows the guidelines compiled for WP3, in order to ensure consistency with SOLIDUS methodology.

1. What is a focus group?

'A focus group is homogeneous composed group of 6 to 12 participants discussing in a well-prepared way on their ideas, motives and interests about a clearly defined issue chaired by a discussion leader. The intention is to exchange ideas in a pleasant and open sphere that allows the participants to speak to each other in a deliberative and communicative way. To guide the discussion a topic list is used and the discussion will be recorded (audio or video)' (WP3 guidelines).

SOLIDUS partners will invite 8 participants representing a third sector/ social economy initiative and their public administration partner in a variety of policy fields and/ or experts on third sector/ social economy co-production with public institutions.

2. What is the purpose of the focus group study?

'A focus group study is mainly used for policy development (are we doing the right thing), the evaluation of policy and interventions, and the exploration of the new initiatives (is there a need for new initiatives)/activities, under what conditions, and how should these initiatives look like)' (WP3 guidelines).

SOLIDUS partners will explore collaborative initiatives to learn about the motivations to co-produce, the nature of the relationship between partners, and some drivers and barriers for co-production.

In this phase of the work package we are not yet focussing on the result of co-production but aim to draw criteria relevant to the process. Therefore, focus groups will provide insights in the role of third sector/ social economy partners in relation to public administration: as initiators, co-implementors or co-designers of a service. Furthermore, collaborating stakeholders should clarify what they want from co-production, what values they seek to serve and thus what outcomes they desire to reach in what way.

2.1. Background

WP5's objective is to shed light on channelling solidarity produced within third sector/ social economy into social policy through collaboration and co-production (see WP5 concept paper). Introducing the solidarity economy approach allows us to evaluate concerted action between multiple sectors and actors from a broader societal perspective including both economic and democratic dimensions.

It combines a New Public Governance (NPG) and a solidarity economy (SE) approach to the production of public services and social policy. Both traditions emphasise the need for building collaborative arenas for policymaking, bringing together a democratic and an economic dimension. When reinforcing the channels of solidarity, the goal is to 're-embed' and re-integrate marginalized and socially excluded people through several economic and

political principles by building a bridge between the public welfare state and a strong civil society. Arguably, this can help states to find ways to deal with pluralist processes informing policy making, pluralist civil society, pluralist notions of economy and economic pressures.

A key variable WP5 is interested in is that of reciprocity rooted in civil society, conceptualised as non-monetary economic system, where production is for use value and to satisfy family and community needs, rather than based on instrumental rationality and market-based transactions. Reciprocity allows relations to be established between groups or persons, turning vulnerable people into co-producers or co-owners, also expressed in third sector and social economy organisations.

A rational choice approach to promoting reciprocity within a framework of new public governance and solidarity economy could argue that this is in the interest of public institutions and third sector/ social economy organisations alike. How it works out in reality is the first level of empirical inquiry in this WP:

1. Assuming that public institutions are under pressure to deliver public goods under economic pressure, do they collaborate with third sector/ social economy organisations in order to save money, in order to provide better services or in order to promote democratic legitimacy?
2. Assuming that value-driven third sector organisations are not only providing a service but also make a contribution to democratic practice by promoting freedom and social justice, public interest and reciprocity, do they pursue different goals from public institutions?

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

The WP3 focus group guidelines refer to opening questions (a), introduction questions (b), transition questions (c), key questions (d) and concluding questions (e), which we aim to adhere to with the following set of questions.

Opening question

‘Opening questions to be answered by all participants in a few minutes and does not yet ask for opinions or attitudes’ (WP3 guidelines).

Please briefly introduce yourself with names, organization and position. Please speak loud and clear for the sake of transcription.

Q.: What is the nature of your collaboration?

Follow-up information to participants: Since we are here interested in collaboration between the third sector or social economy organizations collaborating with public institutions (i.e. participants producing a social service possibly within the areas of education, integration, housing employment and their contact person at the municipality as the funding partner/ co-producer) if possible we want you to particularly focus upon such collaborations.

Introduction questions

‘Introduction questions focus the attention on the core topic of the meeting. These questions challenge the participants to reflect on this core issue and start up the interaction among them’ (WP3 guidelines).

Q.: Why are you working with civil society/ public institutions – to achieve what goal? Furthermore, can you describe the key values guiding your choices?

Transition questions

‘Transition questions turn the attention to the main topics of the focus group, to embed the main topics in the wider context of the SOLIDUS program. These questions inform the participants on how their fellow-participants envision the overall subject of the meeting’ (WP3 guidelines).

Q.: How would you describe the nature of your relationship and the distribution of roles (civil society partner as initiator, co-designer, co-implementer)? Has there been a change in the nature of your relationship over time (i.e. from hierarchy to equality/ reciprocity, or perhaps even the other way around)?

Key question

‘Key questions that will result in answers for the final report’ (WP3 guidelines).

Q.: Can you name three factors each that have been drivers and barriers in your collaboration?

Concluding questions

‘Concluding questions finalize the meeting and offer the participants time for reflection on the discussion. These questions are crucial for the analysis and come in three parts; 1) an overall question covering all main topics; 2) a summarizing question followed on a short summary by the discussion leader of the main issues raised during the meeting; 3) final question’ (WP3 guidelines).

Q. 1: How do see your collaboration benefiting the target groups/ users of a service?

Q.2: What sort of policy recommendations would you give based on your experience of collaboration to improve outcomes for your target group?

Q.3: Anything to add?

Annex 2: Case study protocol

Employing a social and solidarity economy lens, cases should combine three main dimensions:

1. Democratic dimension

- Bottom-up initiatives oriented towards a common good goal, possibly with an eye towards political transformation;
- Participatory internal decision-making structures through member/ use/ employee consultation and multi-stakeholder boards;
- Working in collaboration with public agencies, that could constitute an example of new institutional arrangements for more inclusive and equal public-CSO collaboration.

2. Economic dimension

- Hybrid funding model through a resource mix of redistribution, and/or market, and reciprocity;
- Turning users of services/beneficiaries of redistribution into co-owners and co-producers, thus promoting their autonomy;
- Thus increasing economic leverage of the organisation in bargaining with public institutions.

3. Social dimension

- Promote social inclusion by reducing social inequalities;
- Enabling weaker members of society to give back to community or society through reciprocity and democratic solidarity (social dimension).

Questions for stakeholders within CSO (founder/staff/board member)

General

1. Please introduce yourself. What is your position? How many years have you been working in/ with the organization? Etc.
2. Please describe briefly the mission, history and general activities of your organization.

Resources

3. How is the organization funded (producing for market, redistribution)?
(If making profits, are they re-invested in the social mission/ The role of trust to acquire resources needed/ how important are volunteers? Which resources are the most important?)

Impact on users/beneficiaries

4. How would you describe the social and economic impacts of the activities of your initiative on your members/ users/ beneficiaries?
(economic activity beyond selling or competing on markets, but also thinking about it in terms of autonomy created through co-ownership or producing a value for society)

Internal decision-making

5. How do your members/ volunteers/ users/ employees participate in internal decision-making and how does participation benefit the organisation?
(impact on organisational value-orientations, strategic decision-making, organizational goals, modes of working?)
6. Who is formally in charge of taking strategic decisions for the organization?
(who are members of the board/ any public sector representatives?)

Collaboration with public sector

7. Can you describe ways that you collaborate with the public sector?
(Implementation, co-design or even initiation of services/ contribution to public policies/ following same goals as public sector or win-win situation for other reasons/ eye-to-eye or hierarchical relationship/ scaling of collaboration to other locations or departments/ resulting change of own organizational structure/)
8. Does the public sector acknowledge the services you produce as economic as well as social activity? *(production of products/services, self-help)*
9. Have you encountered any legal or other barriers in your collaboration with public sector institutions?
(issues of institutional culture/ clash with public policies or political interests/ transmission of organizational values/ negative internal effects)
10. What in your view has to change in order to promote a more social economy? Should there be more principles of solidarity in the economy?
11. Mention three things that would promote more inclusive and equal public-CSO collaboration

Questions for a user/member/volunteer/beneficiary of the organization

1. Why did you join this organization/ why do you come here?
2. Can you describe if and how your membership/ participation has changed your situation/ the way you think/act etc.?
3. Would you say that there is also an economic dimension to your involvement *(i.e. creating your own job, increase of your own autonomy through involvement in decision-making/ acquisition of new skills/by producing a service that is of public value etc.)*?
4. How would you describe the goals and values of this organization?
5. Are you in any way involved in internal decision-making?
6. Can you describe a situation, in which members/users/beneficiaries have changed the course of direction of the organization?
7. Do you think this organization has any impact on how the people in public institutions think about this area of activity (service, policy)?
8. What do you associate with the term 'social economy or solidarity economy'?
9. What in your view has to change in order to promote a more social economy?

Questions for public sector stakeholder in contact with the CSO

1. How long have you known this CSO and what is the nature of your relationship?
(what service/ issue of collaboration/ close or distant relationship/ public institutions member on CSO board)
2. How would you describe the social and economic contributions of the CSO?

- (producing services, selling products, creating jobs, creating value for neighborhood/ community comparable to public service, etc.)?*
3. Can you describe the outcomes of your collaboration in terms of social and economic goals (of your institution) and expectations?
(better services/new service/ financially more efficient)?
 4. Would you say these are the same goals and expectations as the CSO's?
(If goals are different and collaboration is deemed successful by both sides anyway, is this collaboration a win-win-situation for both actors, despite different objectives?)
 5. How do you assess the success of your collaboration with the CSO?
(Does the CSO have to demonstrate impact?/ the role of trust/ scope for broader cooperation with CSOs on similar challenges?)
 6. Have there been any internal institutional barriers to establish this kind of collaboration?
 7. Are there any external barriers or drivers like legal frameworks or policy decisions?
 8. Would you describe the relationship with the CSO as on eye-to-eye level or is there a clear hierarchy?
(If there is a hierarchy, what are the reasons for that?)
 9. What do you associate with the term 'social economy or solidarity economy'?
 10. In order to facilitate collaboration on a broader scale, what do we need to change in the way institutions think/ are run/politics works? Mention the three most important aspects.

Annex 3: Report Online survey

Results Online Survey WP5 focus countries

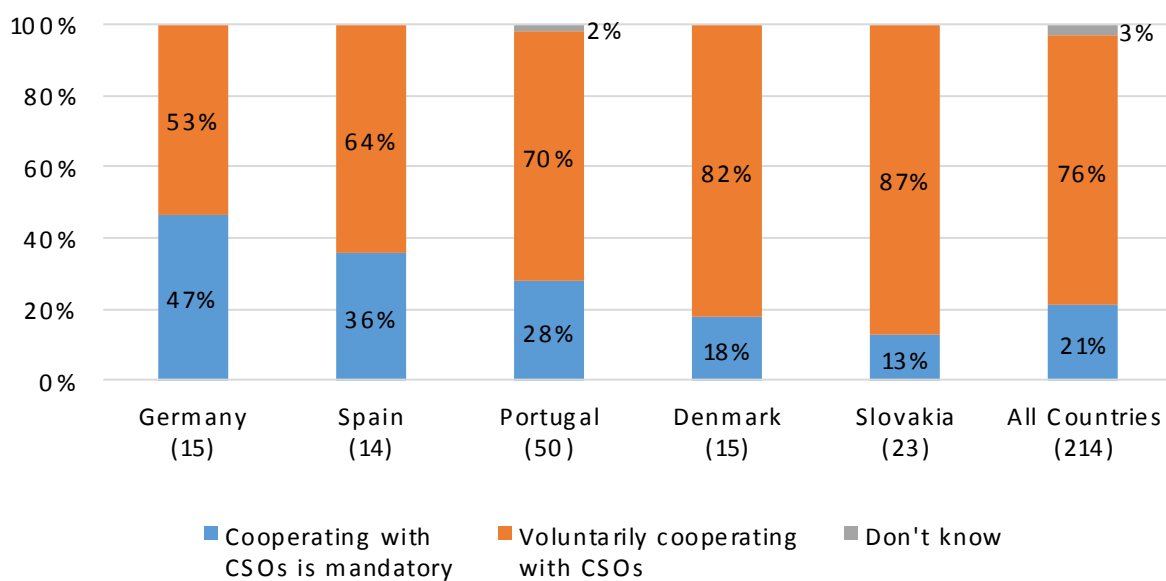
The following tables show the results of the survey in countries who participated in all WP5 tasks (national background report, focus group, survey, case studies). Results from Scotland/UK were excluded due to the very low response rate (two questionnaires completed).

Table 0.1 Contribution of partners to collaboration

	Denmark (19)	Germany (17)	Portugal (53)	Slovakia (23)	Spain (14)	All countries (226)
collaboration in accomplishing a project	42%	71%	64%	57%	57%	55%
increase participation of citizens	68%	53%	38%	35%	64%	50%
detect community's needs	47%	53%	62%	43%	71%	50%
service provision	16%	82%	34%	39%	57%	44%
collaboration in planning	47%	41%	36%	61%	29%	40%
collaboration in monitoring implementation	42%	47%	36%	17%	57%	36%
improve general goals of the institution	21%	47%	15%	43%	43%	30%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Figure 0.1 State of collaboration



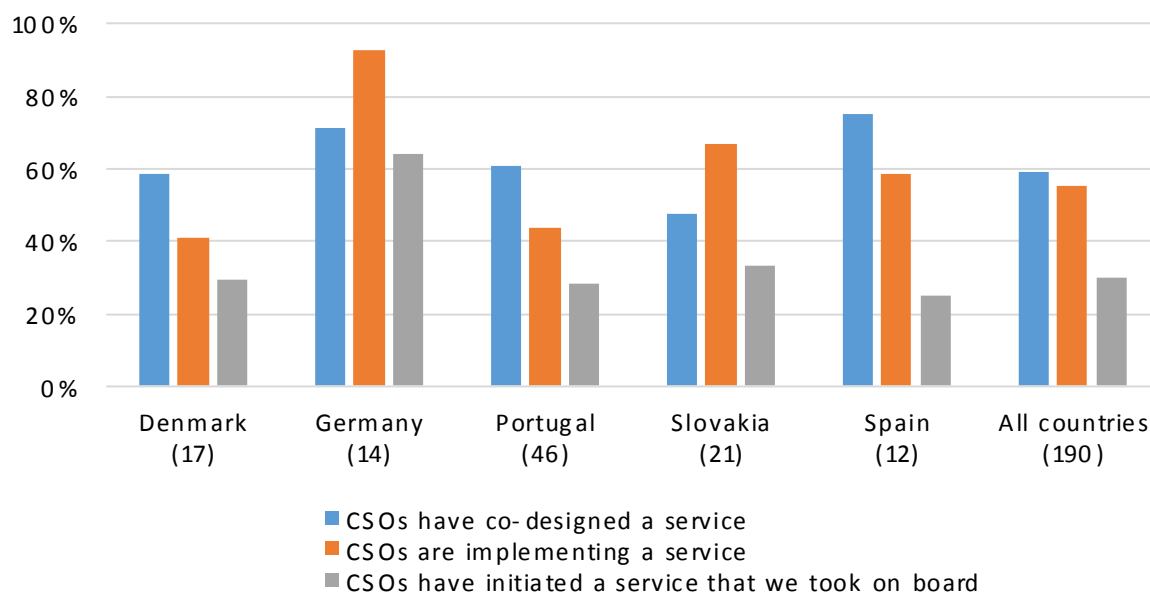
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table 0.2 Goals of collaboration

	Denmark (14 - 17)	Germany (13 - 14)	Portugal (42 - 48)	Slovakia (17 - 20)	Spain (10 - 11)	All countries (176 - 188)
to increase citizens' satisfaction	2.3	1.5	2.3	2.2	2.8	2.0
to better accomplish the purpose of a service	1.3	1.1	2.0	1.8	2.5	1.8
to test new approaches in developing solutions	1.5	1.7	1.8	0.9	2.3	1.5
to increase efficiency of a service	0.1	0.9	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.3
to reduce costs of delivering a service	-1.4	-0.1	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.3

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

Figure 0.2 Nature of relationship



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table 0.3 Institutional contribution to collaboration

	Denmark (17)	Germany (14)	Portugal (46)	Slovakia (21)	Spain (12)	All countries (190)
providing know-how	88%	86%	59%	57%	58%	64%
providing funding	71%	86%	54%	19%	42%	54%
providing human resources	65%	14%	37%	57%	42%	43%
providing in-kind support	35%	29%	28%	43%	50%	31%
helping with legislative issues	53%	29%	15%	48%	33%	27%

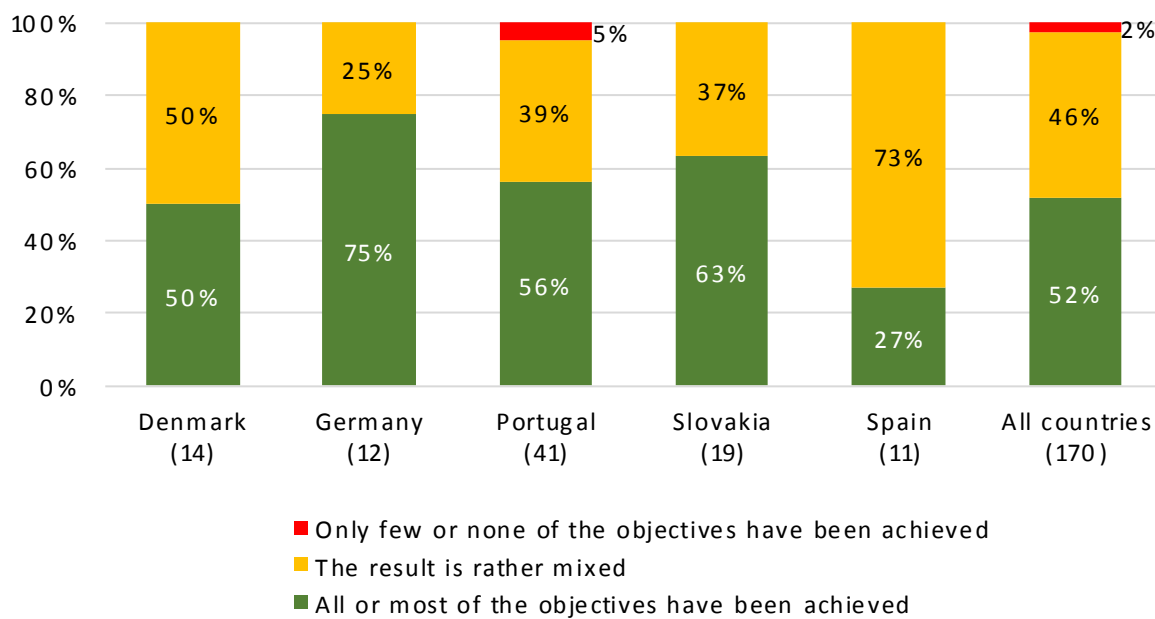
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table 0.4 Experience with collaboration

	Denmark (11-14)	Germany (10-12)	Portugal (35-41)	Slovakia (15-21)	Spain (10-11)	All countries (141-172)
producing a good service	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.1	2.1	1.3
producing a service in a new and innovative way	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.4	1.7	1.0
producing a service in cost-efficient way	0.2	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.5	0.9
producing a service in a time-efficient way	-1.0	0.3	0.9	1.0	1.7	0.5
producing a better service than private companies	1.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	1.7	0.4
private companies provide cheaper service	-1.5	-1.8	-0.9	-0.7	-1.0	-1.2

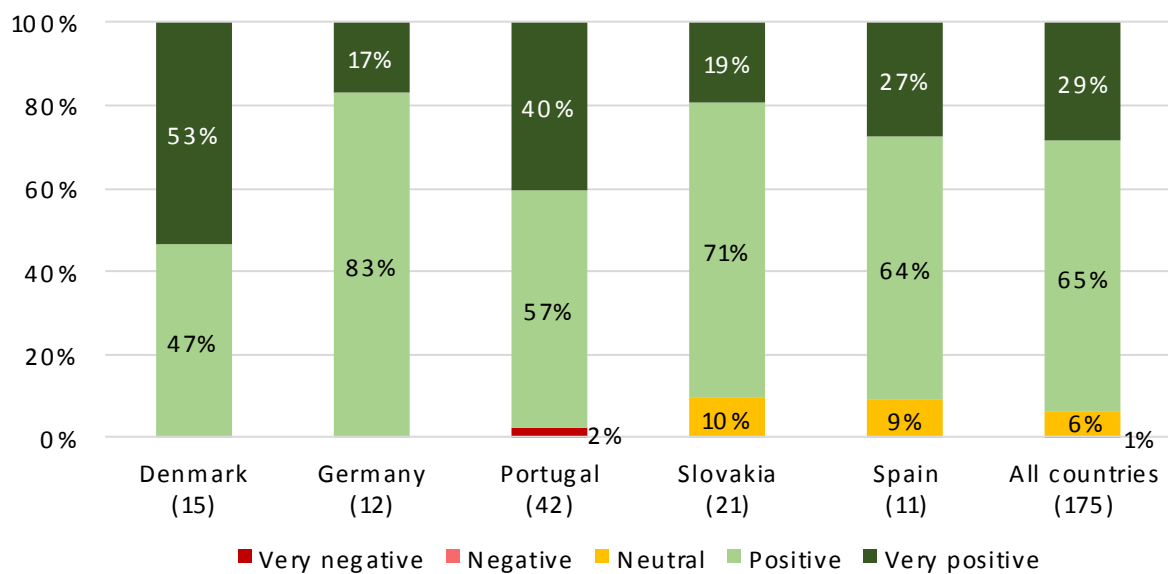
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "totally disagree" and +3 "totally agree".

Figure 0.3 Objectives achieved within last collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Figure 0.4 Overall evaluation of collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table 0.5 Factors for a successful collaboration

	Denmark (14-15)	Germany (12)	Portugal (38-40)	Slovakia (20)	Spain (11)	All countries (161-168)
trust between staff and CSO	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.2
clearly set division of roles and labour	2.0	1.6	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1
open-minded public administration staff	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.0
clearly defined incentives	1.6	1.3	1.9	1.5	1.9	1.8
open public administration structures	1.9	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.0	1.6
professionally managed CSO	-0.1	1.6	1.4	2.1	1.7	1.5
favourable law supporting collaboration	1.4	0.3	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.5
previous experience in cooperation	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.0	1.7	1.2
personal relationships between staff and CSO	1.3	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.5	1.1

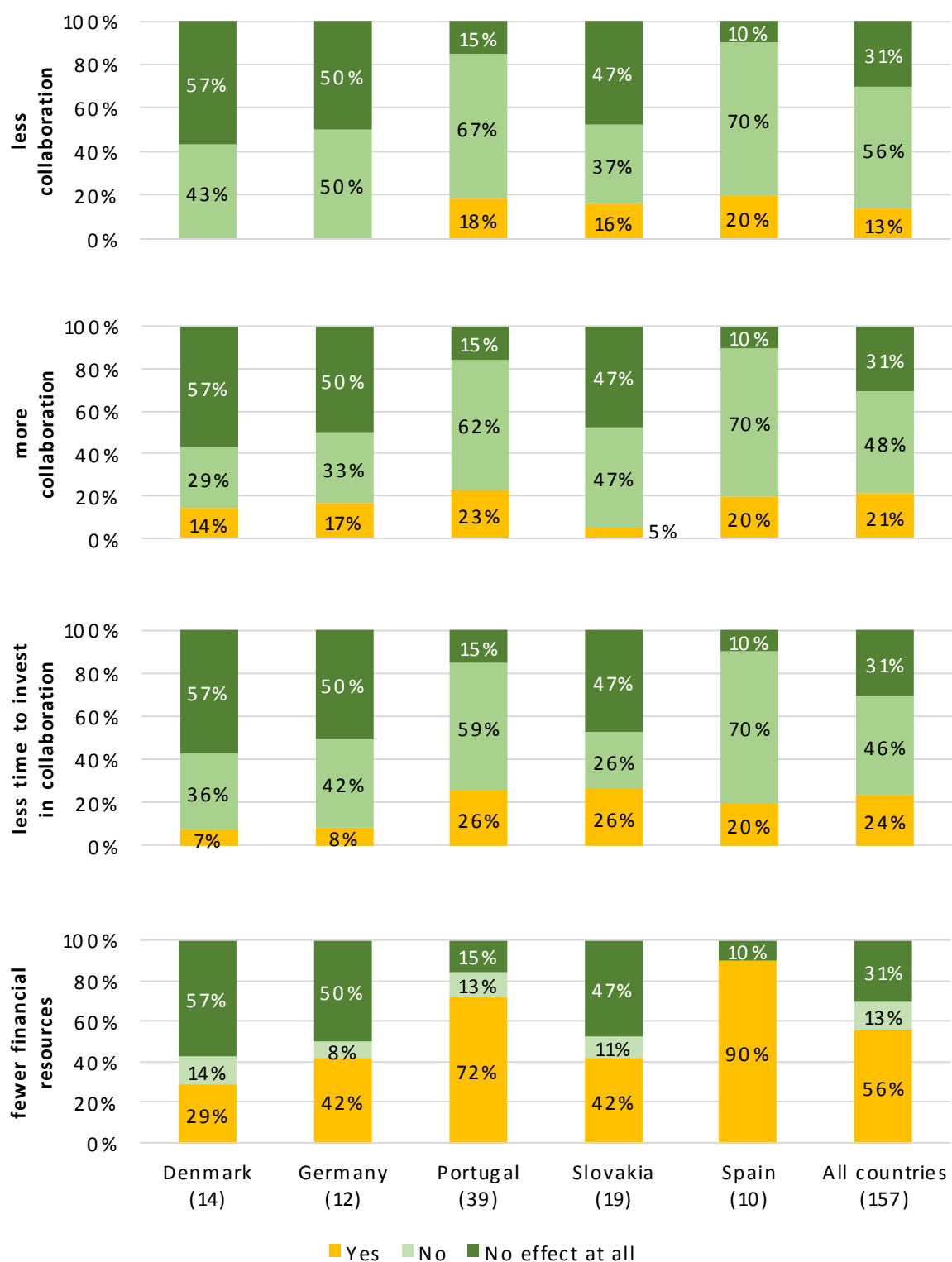
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

Table 0.6 Problems within collaboration

	Denmark (13-15)	Germany (11-12)	Portugal (36-39)	Slovakia (18-20)	Spain (8-10)	All countries (153-160)
limited public resources for collaboration with CSO	0.4	0.8	1.9	0.4	0.6	0.8
diverging objectives	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.9	-0.1	0.2
problems in communication	0.4	-0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	-0.1
unsteady number of volunteers	-0.8	-0.9	0.4	-0.1	0.1	-0.2
lack of transparency in the CSO	-0.6	-0.1	0.2	0.3	-0.5	-0.3
poorly trained staff in CSO organization	-0.9	-1.0	0.8	-0.4	-0.3	-0.4
poorly trained staff in public organisation	-0.4	-0.9	0.1	0.0	-0.3	-0.5
too little effort from the CSO	-0.9	-1.2	0.6	-0.2	-0.3	-0.6
interpersonal conflicts	-0.6	-0.8	-0.4	-1.0	-1.2	-1.0

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3.5 equals "not a problem at all" and +3.5 "highly problematic".

Figure 0.5 Crisis-effect on collaboration



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

2 Results Online Survey: Additional tables and figures

Table A.2.1 Sample of the Online Survey

	Participants						Response rates	
	<i>Invited</i>		<i>Complete</i>		<i>Complete or partially complete</i>		<i>Complete</i>	<i>Complete or partially complete</i>
Cyprus	81	6%	2	1%	2	1%	2%	2%
Denmark	130	9%	14	9%	28	9%	11%	22%
Germany	196	14%	12	8%	22	7%	6%	11%
Greece	120	8%	15	9%	15	5%	13%	13%
Hungary	118	8%	10	6%	17	5%	8%	14%
Ireland	100	7%	15	9%	15	5%	15%	15%
Norway	99	7%	16	10%	22	7%	16%	22%
The Netherlands	117	8%	7	4%	17	5%	6%	15%
Portugal	94	7%	39	25%	62	19%	41%	66%
Slovakia	134	9%	18	11%	44	14%	13%	33%
Spain	144	10%	8	5%	26	8%	6%	18%
United Kingdom	100	7%	2	1%	2	1%	2%	2%
(no country information)	-	-	-	-	49	15%		
<i>Sum</i>	<i>1433</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>158</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>321</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>11%</i>	<i>22%</i>

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations.

Table A.2.2 Sector of working (all countries)

	Employment	Housing	Education	Health	None of the mentioned or missing	Sum
Cyprus (2)	0%	0%	50%	50%	0%	100%
Denmark (28)	4%	0%	21%	21%	54%	100%
Germany (22)	18%	9%	23%	23%	27%	100%
Greece (15)	40%	13%	20%	13%	13%	100%
Hungary (17)	0%	18%	0%	24%	59%	100%
Ireland (15)	13%	0%	20%	0%	67%	100%
Norway (22)	18%	0%	18%	36%	27%	100%
Portugal (62)	2%	8%	6%	61%	23%	100%
Slovakia (44)	11%	0%	20%	14%	55%	100%
Spain (26)	19%	12%	12%	19%	38%	100%
The Netherlands (17)	41%	0%	0%	35%	24%	100%
United Kingdom (2)	50%	0%	0%	50%	0%	100%
(no country information) (49)	20%	6%	8%	10%	55%	100%
<i>Total (321)</i>	<i>14%</i>	<i>6%</i>	<i>13%</i>	<i>27%</i>	<i>40%</i>	<i>100%</i>
<i>Only valid answers (260)</i>	<i>18%</i>	<i>7%</i>	<i>16%</i>	<i>33%</i>	<i>26%</i>	<i>100%</i>

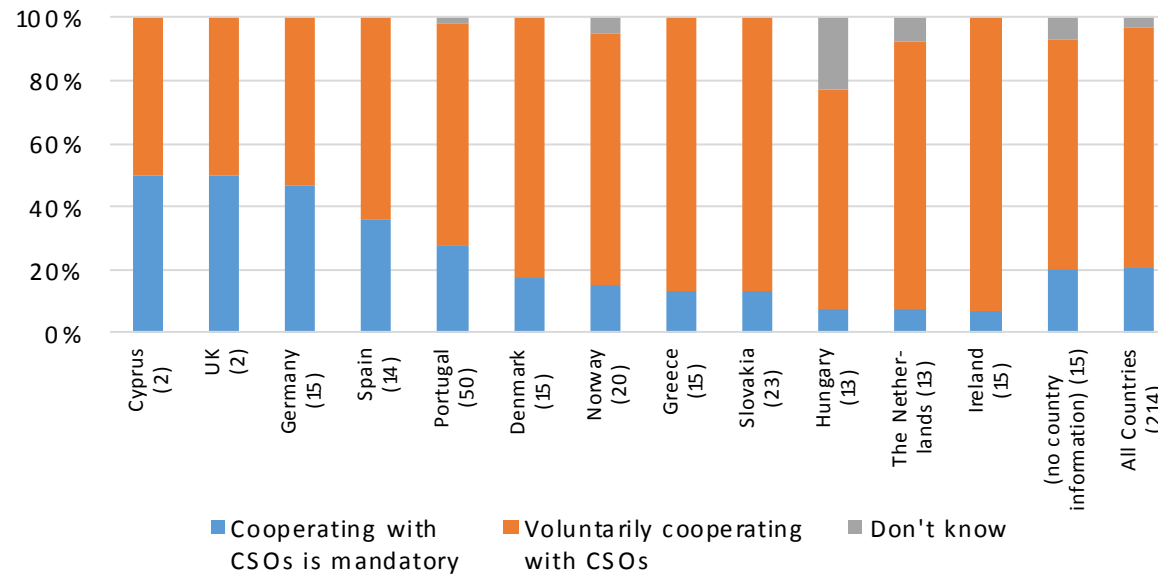
Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.3 Contribution of partners to collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (19)	Germany (17)	Greece (15)	Hungary (13)	Ireland (15)	The Nether- lands (15)	Norway (20)	Portugal (53)	Slovakia (23)	Spain (14)	UK (2)	(no country information) (18)	All countries (226)
collaboration in accomplishing a project	100%	42%	71%	40%	46%	53%	40%	45%	64%	57%	57%	100%	61%	55%
increase participation of citizens	100%	68%	53%	40%	31%	53%	53%	90%	38%	35%	64%	50%	39%	50%
detect community's needs	100%	47%	53%	40%	23%	47%	33%	50%	62%	43%	71%	100%	33%	50%
service provision	100%	16%	82%	47%	85%	73%	20%	35%	34%	39%	57%	50%	33%	44%
collaboration in planning	100%	47%	41%	40%	31%	40%	7%	50%	36%	61%	29%	100%	39%	40%
collaboration in monitoring implementation	100%	42%	47%	27%	15%	33%	20%	40%	36%	17%	57%	50%	50%	36%
improve general goals of the institution	100%	21%	47%	33%	0%	47%	13%	15%	15%	43%	43%	50%	61%	30%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Figure A.2.1 State of collaboration (all countries)



Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.4 Goals of collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (14-17)	Germany (13-14)	Greece (14-15)	Hungary (8-10)	Ireland (14-15)	The Nether- lands (8-9)	Norway (18-20)	Portugal (42-48)	Slovakia (17-20)	Spain (10-11)	UK (2)	(no country information) (8-9)	All countries (176-188)
to increase citizens' satisfaction	2.5	2.3	1.5	1.9	2.2	1.7	1.7	1.5	2.3	2.2	2.8	3.0	1.3	2.0
to better accomplish the purpose of a service	3.0	1.3	1.1	2.0	2.3	2.4	1.3	1.6	2.0	1.8	2.5	2.5	1.3	1.8
to test new approaches in developing solutions	2.5	1.5	1.7	1.9	0.8	1.1	2.0	0.9	1.8	0.9	2.3	2.0	0.3	1.5
to increase efficiency of a service	2.0	0.1	0.9	1.8	1.9	0.7	1.0	0.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.4	1.3
to reduce costs of delivering a service	1.0	-1.4	-0.1	0.7	0.5	0.1	-0.4	-0.7	1.1	0.8	0.4	1.5	0.8	0.3

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

Table A.2.5 Nature of relationship (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (17)	Germany (14)	Greece (15)	Hungary (11)	Ireland (15)	The Netherlands (8)	Norway (19)	Portugal (46)	Slovakia (21)	Spain (12)	UK (2)	(no country information) (8)	All countries (190)
CSOs have co-designed a service	100%	59%	71%	67%	55%	40%	63%	63%	61%	48%	75%	100%	25%	59%
CSOs are implementing a service	100%	41%	93%	47%	64%	73%	50%	42%	43%	67%	58%	0%	63%	55%
CSOs have initiated a service that we took on board	50%	29%	64%	13%	45%	13%	50%	21%	28%	33%	25%	0%	25%	30%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.6 Institutional contribution to collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (17)	Germany (14)	Greece (15)	Hungary (11)	Ireland (15)	The Netherlands (8)	Norway (19)	Portugal (46)	Slovakia (21)	Spain (12)	UK (2)	(no country information) (8)	All countries (190)
providing know-how	100%	88%	86%	73%	45%	40%	100%	58%	59%	57%	58%	100%	38%	64%
providing funding	50%	71%	86%	20%	64%	80%	50%	63%	54%	19%	42%	50%	63%	54%
providing human resources	100%	65%	14%	47%	18%	13%	50%	74%	37%	57%	42%	50%	38%	43%
providing in-kind support	50%	35%	29%	13%	36%	27%	25%	16%	28%	43%	50%	100%	25%	31%
helping with legislative issues	50%	53%	29%	33%	9%	40%	25%	11%	15%	48%	33%	0%	13%	27%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.7 Experience with collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (1-2)	Denmark (11-14)	Germany (10-12)	Greece (13-15)	Hungary (7-10)	Ireland (9-14)	The Nether- lands (5-7)	Norway (12-18)	Portugal (35-41)	Slovakia (15-21)	Spain (10-11)	UK (2)	(no country information) (4-5)	All countries (141-172)
producing a good service	1.5	1.3	1.5	0.9	1.1	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.1	2.1	1.5	0.6	1.3
producing a service in a new and innovative way	0.5	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	2.4	0.1	0.8	1.4	1.7	0.5	1.0	1.0
producing a service in cost-efficient way	1.0	0.2	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.0	0.5	0.9
producing a service in a time-efficient way	2.0	-1.0	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.2	-1.1	0.9	1.0	1.7	0.5	0.0	0.5
producing a better service than private companies	-0.5	1.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.0	-0.5	-0.3	0.4	0.2	1.7	1.5	-1.5	0.4
private companies provide cheaper service	1.0	-1.5	-1.8	-1.1	-1.6	-1.2	-1.0	-2.1	-0.9	-0.7	-1.0	-2.0	-0.5	-1.2

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "totally disagree" and +3 "totally agree".

Table A.2.8 Objectives achieved within last collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (14)	Germany (12)	Greece (15)	Hungary (10)	Ireland (14)	The Netherlands (7)	Norway (18)	Portugal (41)	Slovakia (19)	Spain (11)	UK (2)	(no country information) (5)	All countries (170)
All or most of the objectives have been achieved	100%	50%	75%	20%	60%	71%	14%	44%	56%	63%	27%	100%	40%	52%
The result is rather mixed	0%	50%	25%	80%	40%	29%	71%	56%	39%	37%	73%	0%	40%	46%
Only few or none of the objectives have been achieved	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	14%	0%	5%	0%	0%	0%	20%	2%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.9 Overall evaluation of collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (15)	Germany (12)	Greece (15)	Hungary (10)	Ireland (15)	The Netherlands (7)	Norway (18)	Portugal (42)	Slovakia (21)	Spain (11)	UK (2)	(no country information) (5)	All countries (175)
Very negative	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%
Negative	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Neutral	0%	0%	0%	7%	0%	7%	14%	17%	0%	10%	9%	0%	20%	6%
Positive	100%	47%	83%	93%	80%	67%	43%	50%	57%	71%	64%	100%	60%	65%
Very positive	0%	53%	17%	0%	20%	27%	43%	33%	40%	19%	27%	0%	20%	29%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.

Table A.2.10 Factors for a successful collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (14-15)	Germany (12)	Greece (15)	Hungary (9-10)	Ireland (13-15)	The Nether- lands (6-7)	Norway (15-17)	Portugal (38-40)	Slovakia (20)	Spain (11)	UK (2)	(no country information) (2)	All countries (161-168)
trust between staff and CSO	2.5	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.4	1.8	2.7	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	3.0	0.5	2.2
clearly set division of roles and labour	3.0	2.0	1.6	2.5	2.6	1.6	1.6	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.5	2.1
open-minded public administration staff	3.0	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.1	1.6	2.4	1.6	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.5	1.5	2.0
clearly defined incentives	2.5	1.6	1.3	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.5	1.8
open public administration structures	2.5	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.4	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.0	2.5	1.0	1.6
professionally managed CSO	2.5	-0.1	1.6	1.9	2.2	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.4	2.1	1.7	2.0	1.5	1.5
favourable law supporting collaboration	2.5	1.4	0.3	1.8	2.5	0.5	0.2	1.5	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5
previous experience in cooperation	2.5	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	0.7	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.2
personal relationships between staff and CSO	2.5	1.3	0.5	0.7	1.7	1.4	1.9	1.8	0.6	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.1

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3 equals "not important" and +3 "very important".

Table A.2.11 Problems within collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (13-15)	Germany (11-12)	Greece (12-14)	Hungary (8-9)	Ireland (13-15)	The Nether- lands (6-7)	Norway (14-15)	Portugal (36-39)	Slovakia (18-20)	Spain (8-10)	UK (2)	(no country information) (1)	All countries (153-160)
limited public resources for collaboration with CSO	1.0	0.4	0.8	1.5	0.9	0.0	0.4	-0.5	1.9	0.4	0.6	2.0	-1.5	0.8
diverging objectives	-2.5	0.0	0.1	0.3	-0.3	-0.4	0.8	-0.1	0.6	0.9	-0.1	-1.5	-1.5	0.2
problems in communication	-3.0	0.4	-0.1	-0.4	-0.4	-0.5	1.5	-1.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	-1.5	-0.1
unsteady number of volunteers	-2.5	-0.8	-0.9	0.4	-0.2	-1.3	0.0	-0.5	0.4	-0.1	0.1	-1.5	-1.5	-0.2
lack of transparency in the CSO	1.0	-0.6	-0.1	0.4	-1.8	-1.0	-0.2	-1.4	0.2	0.3	-0.5	-1.0	-1.5	-0.3
poorly trained staff in CSO organization	-2.5	-0.9	-1.0	-0.7	-0.6	-1.0	-0.9	-1.0	0.8	-0.4	-0.3	-1.5	-1.5	-0.4
poorly trained staff in public organisation	-1.0	-0.4	-0.9	-0.5	-1.5	-1.1	-0.6	-1.7	0.1	0.0	-0.3	-1.5	-1.5	-0.5
too little effort from the CSO	-2.5	-0.9	-1.2	-0.6	-1.8	-1.6	-0.6	-1.0	0.6	-0.2	-0.3	-3.0	-1.5	-0.6
interpersonal conflicts	-2.0	-0.6	-0.8	-0.8	-2.3	-1.3	-0.5	-1.8	-0.4	-1.0	-1.2	-1.5	-1.5	-1.0

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis. Depicted are the centred mean values where -3.5 equals "not a problem at all" and +3.5 "highly problematic".

Table A.2.12 Crisis-effect on collaboration (all countries)

	Cyprus (2)	Denmark (14)	Germany (12)	Greece (15)	Hungary (10)	Ireland (14)	The Nether- lands (5)	Norway (14)	Portugal (39)	Slovakia (19)	Spain (10)	UK (2)	(no country information) (1)	All countries (157)
fewer financial resources														
Yes	100%	29%	42%	73%	30%	79%	20%	29%	72%	42%	90%	50%	100%	56%
No	0%	14%	8%	13%	20%	7%	40%	21%	13%	11%	0%	50%	0%	13%
No effect at all	0%	57%	50%	13%	50%	14%	40%	50%	15%	47%	10%	0%	0%	31%
more collaboration														
Yes	0%	14%	17%	40%	20%	29%	40%	21%	23%	5%	20%	0%	0%	21%
No	100%	29%	33%	47%	30%	57%	20%	29%	62%	47%	70%	100%	100%	48%
No effect at all	0%	57%	50%	13%	50%	14%	40%	50%	15%	47%	10%	0%	0%	31%
less collaboration														
Yes	0%	0%	0%	13%	20%	14%	0%	14%	18%	16%	20%	50%	0%	13%
No	100%	43%	50%	73%	30%	71%	60%	36%	67%	37%	70%	50%	100%	56%
No effect at all	0%	57%	50%	13%	50%	14%	40%	50%	15%	47%	10%	0%	0%	31%
less time to invest in collaboration														
Yes	0%	7%	8%	27%	20%	29%	0%	43%	26%	26%	20%	100%	0%	24%
No	100%	36%	42%	60%	30%	57%	60%	7%	59%	26%	70%	0%	100%	46%
No effect at all	0%	57%	50%	13%	50%	14%	40%	50%	15%	47%	10%	0%	0%	31%

Source: SOLIDUS Online Survey 2017, own calculations, relative frequencies with only valid cases, number of cases in parenthesis.